employment service review

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"We face a new frontier which promises a longer, healthier, richer life. Frequently it will be possible to reach the century mark in reasonably good health."

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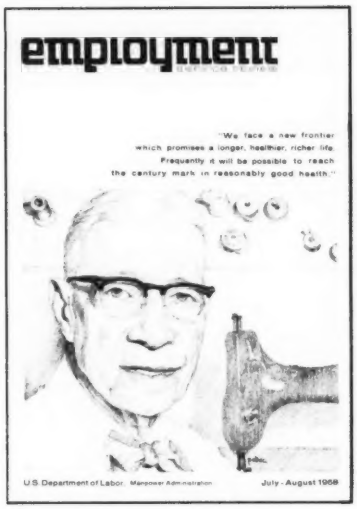
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration

July - August 1968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THE COVER:

Happy and gainful employment prolongs life for our elderly workers, in many cases, according to Dr. R. F. Sondag of the Illinois Department of Public Health, whose article begins on page 2 of this edition. The cover drawing is by "Patric," a distinguished artist, who is living temporarily in Washington, D.C. while her husband, Commander Barry Bauernschmidt USN (Ret.), is on leave from the U.S. Information Agency, after several years' duty in South Vietnam.

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John M. Virden, Editor

employment service review

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patric

Forced Retirement in Prime of Life Called Absurd Waste

Many Workers at Physical and Mental Peak When Thrown on Industrial Scrapheap

R. F. Sondag, M.D.

Had you ever wondered about the health conditions at the time that Christ was born? History tells us that the average life expectancy was only 22 years. It hardly seems possible, does it? What were the prevailing types of diseases to take such a heavy toll of life at that time? They were diseases of filth, contagion, and infection. It hardly seems believable that people did not know simple cleanliness can avoid a host of health problems.

At the time of the Revolutionary War here in America we had gained 12 years in life expectancy. A ripe 34 years was the average at that time. In the next 100 years (by about 1860), we had raised this to 42 years. By 1900, it was up to 47 years and today it exceeds 70 years. During the past 100 years, the increase in life expectancy has been greater than in all previous recorded time. To put it more clearly, it took about 1,860 years to gain 20 years in life expectancy, but during the last 100 years we were able to add more than 28 years on top of this.

Yes, there are more taxes and smog and traffic jams today. Life is complicated, but we have more time to live it, more time to search for the important things. For those who long for the "good old days" when everything was "easy going," we must remind them that along with "easy goingness" people had to accept the greater health hazards and a much shorter life span.

With more effective control of the diseases associated with childbirth, infancy, and youth, loss of life from these devastations has greatly decreased. Accordingly, the community now must strive for control of those diseases which are most common in older age groups. More persons are now surviving to ages which are characterized by a high incidence of heart and kidney diseases, cancer, diabetes mellitus, arthritis, rheumatism, gout, and the mental and physiological changes associated with the aging process. Aging is not necessarily synonymous with chronic illness or senility. The prevention or delay of the development of the diseases of the aging is one of the most important responsibilities of medicine today, in order that the potentialities of the elderly may be developed and utilized more widely. The ultimate hope, of course, is for prevention. There are two kinds of preventive medicine: The community type as represented by the typical public health approach, and the private type as represented primarily by the individualized service rendered in the offices of private practitioners of medicine. The predominant role must be played by the private physicians.

Any health program for the aging and the aged should emphasize the development of personal preventive health services for adults. Aging is a biological and physiological process going on in each of us. Biological barriers to long life include tissue deterioration which

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Dr. R. F. Sondag is Chief, Division of Health Care Facilities and Chronic Illness, Illinois Department of Public Health.

usually begins to manifest itself between the ages of 35 and 45 years. These are degeneration of the vascular system, the skeleton, and the nervous system. Suggestive experimental data indicate more effective control of these tissue breakdowns in the not-too-distant future.

Fitness, physical and mental, implies more than disease prevention. It encompasses an optimum condition of dynamic well-being for each growing, aging individual. To enjoy such an enviable experience, deterioration must be kept at the very minimum and active measures—including diet, weight control, exercise, work, rest, and recreation—are essential.

The progressive development of a number of chronic diseases, or of the complications due to them, can be prevented by early detection and treatment. Greater attention to the promotion of positive health or a higher level of chronic wellness (as opposed to chronic illness) from infancy through adulthood beyond the years of maturity is essential.

A most serious handicap is the insidious nature of the development of the majority of chronic illnesses. Their onsets tend to be asymptomatic and they often progress slowly with little or no pain or discomfort in the earlier stages. This encourages the person afflicted, even when he suspects the condition, to delay in seeking medical advice and care. One of the most fundamental handicaps, therefore, is the difficulty of getting individuals to protect themselves, to obtain periodic medical examinations and, if necessary, early and adequate treatment. The privilege of longevity carries with it the obligation of personal effort toward health maintenance. This, in consideration of the inherent frailties of human nature, is the seat of much of the problem. A number of psychological blocks must be counteracted. The individual must overcome a considerable amount of inertia and do something which is not of immediate or apparent benefit. Fear of a positive diagnosis serves as a deterrent for some, while others rebel at the thought of potential restrictions upon their personal habits and pleasures. The only weapon available against these deterrents is increased and persistent educational measures. The ultimate goal should be the establishment of periodic medical examinations as part of the accepted cultural behavior of our civilization, as has occurred to a considerable degree with regard to the immunization of children against many communicable diseases. With the remarkable advances of science, it is becoming more difficult to die.

Dr. R. F. Sondag, M.D. and M.P.H. says ". . . sudden loss of a job when a worker has reached his finest hour often shortens his life. For many, retirement is a humiliating shock."

Society's attitude towards older citizens is in drastic need of a thorough house-cleaning. There are a number of firmly entrenched customs followed by business, industry, labor, the professions, and also certain departments of government which militate against healthy aging.

Retirement at age 65 is a practice that should be up for retirement itself. The sudden loss of a job when a worker has reached his finest hour often shortens a man's life. For many it is a humiliating shock.

Of course, retirement means many things which vary according to the person and his desires and his economic support. Too many of our older citizens accept defeat because the community emphasizes the fact "You are an old man."

We are now facing a new frontier which promises a longer life, a richer life for our aging citizens. More frequently, even commonplace, it will be possible to reach the round century in reasonably good health.

In planning for a round century of existence, the life span might be divided into trimesters of 30 years each. They would be divided, as follows:

From 1 to 30 years of age, the active, growing person should be schooled in the basic facts of health, biological, and social activities. The young learn from the old and the old learn from the young. In the latter part of this first trimester, from 20 to 30, the young adult learns his profession, training, or work—the first major ambition to be served. Science has the information now to keep the first trimester from 1 to 30 years a healthy, active, developmental period.

In the second trimester, from 30 to 60 years, there is the full flush of vigorous biological activity, the establishment of a family, and becoming a useful member of society in one's life work. The full bloom of enjoying continued intellectual growth and gaining new knowledge should add to the strength and vitality of the individual. In this critical third, family bonds are developed and strengthened and the emotional glow of family and friends make life exceedingly interesting. There is the thrilling drive to attain the summit of the years. This summit, chronologically, is the third trimester from the period 60 or 65 to 90. Yet, foolishly, society now says that at 65 a man is finished.

The years from 60 to 90 for many individuals represent the most enjoyable period of living. For more people to gain the enduring satisfactions implied in the phrase "life,

liberty, and the pursuit of happiness," a clearer appreciation of healthy practices of living must appear.

It is not what one retires from but what one retires to that determines the content of living at the summit of his life span.

Retirement can be rewarding—or it can be deadly.

Biologically, withdrawal from action, either of muscle or mind, ends in flabbiness or atrophy. When a man retires from life, life retires from him. It is our first conviction that life is worth living. There is, or can be, a crescendo to a goal worthy of the man and of society as well. Man is a goal-directed individual. Aimless living is sick living for which, we believe, there is a cure.

Aging is an exceedingly individual experience. The retired-out-of-life, secluded, protected existence is dangerous, since we weaken just when our horizons should be expanding.

Our biological rhythms are so regulated that each cell, each organ gains strength through the cycle of action and repose. Withdrawal of activity weakens these same cells.

The lengthening life span with citizens remaining healthy nearer and nearer the century milestone, plus a lowering of the first retirement age, opens up new periods of leisure and the opportunity for one's second career. Of course, this will require a more capacious appreciation of our great potentials in the later years.

As a Nation, we have been sickness-oriented. Practically all of the funds voted by Congress for research are directed to the study of the control of illness and the rehabilitation of patients. Now is the time for us to become health-oriented and to emphasize the positive. A national program encouraging people to stay out of the hospital and to keep active, as long as they are able physically and mentally, would pay rich dividends; not least important, it would be a tremendous money-saver.

As acute diseases are being brought under control, long-term disorders—especially deterioration of the heart and blood vessels, cancer, and mental disorders—will constitute the major illnesses for future physicians.

A new picture of abundant and enjoyable health in later years is now within reach. Workers are young longer while the age of retirement is moving downward. Thus, with an extending life expectancy and the promise of vigorous health into the eighties and nineties, the dilemma of what the content of these post-retirement years should be is of startling importance.

Individual Experience

Retirement can be a many-splendored occasion, but it is an exceedingly individual experience. It may lead to wide corridors of exciting new fields or, too often, it is a sorry closing of one's chief interest in life with uncertainty and despair in the offing. At the time of life when individuals should be living in the full bloom of happy maturity and reaping the benefits of a useful career, they suddenly find themselves cast off and without a plan for continued activity. No wonder they are bewildered. Why does society and its instrument, modern science, guarantee humanity longer life but take from us the means of self-support?

The time has come when there must be a new appreciation of the capabilities of older persons. The population shift in our Nation shows that 75 percent of the increase during the next decade will be in people over age 65. That creates a major social challenge. This shift in the makeup of our population has come about so quietly and quickly that industry, labor, and the general public are unprepared to meet it. Heartaches, depressions, despondencies, and failures in adjustment are the result. We are not yet equipped socially or emotionally in our thinking and planning to use the gift of additional years. The resulting frustration sets the stage for all manner of illnesses—both physical and emotional.

The achievement of modern medicine in the control of disease and the improvement of the general health of the pubic is bringing about a much longer working life for the average individual. Death rates are falling spectacularly. In the not-too-distant future, deaths which occur before the age of 50, from causes other than accidents and violence, will be a rarity in the western world.

At the present time, some 16 million people, or approximately 8 percent of the total population of the United States, are 65 years of age or over. In the last half-century, their number has quadrupled while the entire population has only doubled. In 1900, there were 3 million people 65 or older. By 1975, more than 25 million of our population will be over 65.

Many of our citizens mature relatively late in life. With a rigid retirement program, which we accept today as starting somewhere between 60 and 65, an ever-increasing portion of man's lifetime may be spent in retirement. Loss of employment may be a catastrophe. Health and social and economic security are endangered.

Since the turn of the century, the proportion of men who continue to work after they reach the higher years has been rapidly decreasing. This may be the result of technological change, occupational shifts, and compulsory retirement programs. Discrimination has worked a hardship on thousands of our citizens who may be forced to retire at a period in life when, emotionally and physically, their primary need is to be gainfully employed. Hidden talents of many persons are often uncovered only in later life.

A man's job is his way of life. It is his bond with reality, his contact with the community, his form of participation in the business of purposeful existence. A man's job iden-

Workers remain young and healthy much longer, while the age of retirement is moving downward.

tifies him with society. It makes him a social and civilized person. He is securely attached to his job, and through it to the life of society.

Work fills many functions in life. One may not be aware of this until the possibility of losing a job of significance becomes a reality. Gainful employment furnishes income, fills in the hours of the day or night, and frequently aids in maintaining physical vigor and vitality. A pattern of comradeship and contact with others helps to establish status in family and community. Beyond this, however, a sense of satisfaction in new experiences and a chance to be creative and to continue working as time marches on give life enduring significance. Work has meaning for each individual. If these meanings are important, their loss or unsatisfactory replacement in retirement creates major problems of adjustment.

Work, or its equivalent, must be recognized as a basic human need with respect to economic independence, social status, the satisfaction of living, and the continuance of life itself. Work is prestige; work is success. It stimulates human relations, it furnishes power. The loss of a job robs a worker of status, objective, and important relationships. There are deep emotional reasons why workers want to continue at work; it's more than a means of making a living; it's a way of life—to many it is life itself.

Contempt for work is the mark of a decaying society. Work is stimulating. In moderation, it is the best way of increasing longevity. When retirement means transfer from an active to an inactive program, it adds up to discontent, unhappiness and, all too frequently, illness. When purposeful work is replaced by aimless living, neurosis and depression appear.

There is a biological axiom that organisms, organs, and tissues tend to die when they no longer serve a useful purpose. An aimless existence is an intolerable one and nature will have none of it. The debilitating effects of advancing years cannot be laid entirely to changes in structure with time. The loss of incentive, the loss of driving power—that something which keeps an individual in motion and in tune with his fellow man—changes the person from a contributing member to a parasitic member of the social group. Then he begins to look for signs of approaching decay. He studies his anatomy and reviews one organ after another. The internal arrangements come into prominence. An older man with nothing else to do can concentrate his attention upon some aspect of body function to such an extent that in a comparatively short time the parts become responsive to conscious thought. Minor derangements of the digestion, the heart action, or the kidneys come up for inspection. An idle person looks himself over for evidence of approaching doom. In so doing he invites that process. Too much amateur anatomizing and self-purging, to which an old person can easily become addicted, start the train of circumstances for which the doctor must be called. These complaints may not kill the old person, but they can make him very unhappy and sometimes a downright nuisance.

Emotional depressions disturb the appetite and bowel function, and may bring about anemia and all manner of circulatory disturbances. Frustration and rejection may, and frequently do, produce a retreat from reality that aggravates all of the popular and recognized signs of premature senile decay. Retirement from physical and mental activity is a dangerous move.

While many older persons have no thought of retiring at any age, there are larger numbers who are looking forward happily to the time when increased freedom from responsibility will give them opportunity for the pursuit of hobbies

long in abeyance or inadequately enjoyed. For those to whom financial security is guaranteed, the problem is far less complicated.

What Older People Want

The major desires of older people fall into certain categories. First, they wanted to enjoy good health; second, they desired to have a gainful and interesting employment; third, they desired companionship; fourth, they wanted security; and fifth, they wanted a sense of dignity in daily living. It has been said that the younger the individual the more glamorous does the period of retirement appear. As the time draws near, misgivings arise.

The fight against growing old is not so much a matter of duration as it is for the preservation of the capacity for happiness and interesting living. A new creative work begun in the higher years of life assists the person to be useful, to forget many aches and pains, and to engage in purposeful activity that may take on an importance far greater than was the daily routine before thought of retirement. The time of withdrawal from active routine duties may furnish opportunity for individuals to gain in value through the routine process of aging, or maturing. What counts most is the person's capacity to maintain unity of performance, interest, and activity. To express oneself as an individual and to continue in that unique performance identifies him as a person and preserves his individual and social values.

Retirement from a job need not bring about retirement from society. Opportunities for the second career in one's life are now becoming more evident as plans for retirement take on added incentive. Skills and experience acquired over a period of years may with profit be directed to perplexing problems of community life. As the body slows down physically, one matures mentally and the capacity for productive work often increases.

Retirement obviously means different things to different people. If it is accepted as a period to be feared, a final time of uselessness and dependency on others then trouble must ensue. A barren and unproductive period between regular employment and death is a tragedy which must at all costs be avoided. Retirement should be a time for taking up new and useful activities which are adapted to the older person's capabilities and which do not demand his participation beyond voluntary limits. The man himself must develop his interests and resources over the years against the day when he is free to leave his regular job.

When we have learned to achieve self-renewal, we shall have discovered one of the most important secrets a society can learn, a secret that will unlock new resources of vitality throughout the Nation. And we shall have done something to avert the hardening of the arteries that attacks so many societies. Men who have lost their adaptiveness naturally resist change. The most stubborn protector of his own vested interest is the man who has lost the capacity for self-renewal.

We are living in a rapidly changing world. Man is entering a new dimension of human experience. While science is probing the vastness of outer space, the innermost recesses of man are being examined with an exactness that promises an astonishing perception of the mechanology of living processes. From this significantly fresh knowledge, a new kind of human being is emerging. He is potentially a stronger, more superior product who is living longer and staying young longer. Old age is not a disease. It is a time of decreasing strength and increasing limitations. Age is not something that appears suddenly. It is not a question of years, but of effectiveness. The whole of life should be a preparation for this process.

Meeting life with its limitations, inevitabilities, and disappointments courageously, effectively, and successfully, is a preparation for aging. Persons who throughout their lives have had active interests and curiosity, have carried responsibility, and have cooperated with others, have learned to meet old age in advance.

Senescence is not just a matter of the pliability of blood vessels and the vitality of cells. It is also a question of the flexibility of the personality. The unhappy and discontened person finds life a burden at any age. How does one keep a personality vital? One cultivates continuous and changing interests, shares those interests, participates in activities with others, discovers new areas of usefulness while still developing. The old, above all, learns the healing value of human interest in other beings. Many persons who reach the age of 65 are unprepared for what science has given them—a longer life with better health. Many are unable to relax and to play for play's sake, i.e., for the sheer pleasure and enjoyment of it. They have an irresistible compulsion for work, an enhanced sense of time urgency, and a feeling of guilt towards resting. They need to be prepared for leisure. Today, education is for life on the job, but more and more we need education for life off the job so that we can derive the most from our leisure. Those who have really learned to live will be unlikely to run into difficulties as they grow older.

ERRATUM

Dr. Chester G. Hall, Jr., Ph. D., Director of Education for the National Restaurant Association, provided the information and the illustrations and wrote much of the text of the feature: "Food Service—Growth Industries II," which appeared in the May/June edition of the EMPLOYMENT Service Review. Dr. Hall's by-line, and a footnote stating his position with the National Restaurant Association, were omitted due to editorial oversight. The Editor regrets this error.

Key representatives involved in the Mental Health and Manpower project, a program funded by the U.S. Department of Labor to help restored psychiatric patients (hard core unemployed) become employable, discuss program progress at the Fort Logan Mental Health Center near Denver. Left to right: R. W. Miskimins, Ph. D., Research Coordinator; Donald J. Searls, Employment Counselor, Colorado Department of Labor and Employment; and Lowell P. Wilson, Research Associate.

Dr. Lester R. Bellwood, Ph. D., Th. D., Director of the Fort Logan Mental Health Center Alcoholism Division, discusses the causes of alcoholism with a newly arrived mental patient.

Counseling Handicapped Jobless Requires Skill and Patience

MENTALLY RETARDED, EX-CONVICTS, AND PHYSICALLY DISABLED POSE SPECIAL PROBLEMS

DONALD J. SEARLS, JR.,
LOWELL T. WILSON,
AND R. W. MISKIMINS

The label "hardcore unemployed" is attached to those individuals who are not competing successfully in the job market. More specifically, the hardcore are those who have either not found employment or who have repeatedly been unable to succeed on a job. At first glance, the label appears perfectly understandable and implies that such a person is easily identifiable in the world of work. However, the issue is much more complex than this, as employability, like most human traits, is a matter of degree.

The problems associated with the hardcore client are numerous and must be identified if beneficial counseling is to be accomplished. This discussion offers the viewpoints of the employment counselor and the research oriented personnel who would examine the more generic characteristics of this group. In this manner, the subjective and objective perspectives can be integrated more fully into meaningful statements concerning the problems of the hardcore unemployed individual.

The Vocational Counselor's Viewpoint

With the exception of a few objective measures of interests and abilities, the employment counselor must rely heavily on subjective judgments when dealing with the potential employability of his clients. He must contend with the problem of distributing his time to best use his services and counseling effectiveness. When dealing with the hardcore individual, the counselor may be ignoring or jeopardizing the more employable person who would benefit most from his services.

In this case, he must rely on experience to determine which clients will be served best by his efforts.

It is evident that there is a need for a more objective measure or scale that would supplement clinical judgment in the identification of the "hardcore unemployed" client. If employability is a matter of degree, then the most unemployable client should not be treated in the same manner as all clients, for the simple reason that he would benefit more from some other service or training.

To assume a uniform procedure in counseling all clients is probably a mistake, particularly among the exceptional groups. Counseling of the restored mental patient would require quite different considerations than that of the ex-convict, economically disadvantaged, or impoverished client. However, the counselor still must make decisions to justify the time allotted to each

Donald J. Searls, Jr., is with the Colorado State Employment Service; Lowell T. Wilson and R. W. Miskimins are members of the faculty of Colorado State University.

Staff members lay out electronic parts for use in the Work Therapy Section at the Fort Logan Mental Health Center. Work therapy, Center officials assert, helps a patient learn good work habits and resocialize with others.

particular client with whom he may relate, many times without knowledge of the client's potential employability.

Employment counselors face a variety of problems in dealing with the hardcore unemployed. The identification of the degree of unemployability is probably the most frustrating and difficult characteristic to assess. Many times this person is extremely resistant in offering relevant information to the counselor. Whether or not this behavior is the result of a deficiency in training or general ability, the counselor still must overcome this obstinance if he is to be of much assistance to the client; if not, the counselor is likely to misplace the client in a position that is not commensurate with the person's needs or abilities.

Experience has shown that the apparent lack of motivation characteristic of the hardcore unemployed person is not necessarily the result of a generalized "laziness." While it is true that many of these people are not sincerely interested in employment, many others are labeled "hardcore" simply because of perceived difficulties in the interview situation with prospective employers.

The case of Robert S. is an excellent example of the difficulties experienced by hardcore clients. Robert was a restored mental patient of average ability. He possessed skills that qualified him for relatively complex construction positions. However, Robert repeatedly failed to keep interview appointments and procrastinated when given job leads. The counselor suspected that he was not disinterested in employment, but was frightened of the interview situation. Upon recommendation from the counselor, Robert was exposed to interviewing training in a nonthreatening situa-

tion. After evaluating his own behavior and actually seeing himself, Robert was able to eliminate many inappropriate behaviors, and gain the confidence to interview a prospective employer. Although his present position is relatively modest, the fact remains that he is no longer classified as a "hardcore unemployed."

Counselors face the varied problems accompanying aged clients, the restored mental patient or ex-convict, the manipulative client, and the disadvantaged client who has never had adequate training or experience. It is obvious that the employment counselor simply does not have enough time to rely solely on clinical judgments in the assessment of a particular client's employability. Human motivation is simply too complex for anyone to assume that the employment counselor successfully can place all of his clients.

The Research Viewpoint

The above consideration indicated an urgent need for a practical strategy that would aid in the identification of the client who conceivably would have the most difficulty in making a satisfactory vocational adjustment. The research staff and Vocational Services Department of the Mental Health and Manpower Project (MHM) at the Fort Logan Mental Health Center in Denver, Colo., undertook the project of developing a methodology to objectively select the unemployable mental patient. The MHM project operates to provide vocational counseling and placement facilities to mental patients who are evaluated by the clinical staff to be employable.

At the disposal of the MHM research staff were the employment histories of the patients who had been referred to the project for counseling and placement. Also available was information pertaining to the eventual success or failure of job placements of the individual patients.

The research department began with the specific objective of examining the generic qualities of the patients who were classified as "hardcore." These were patient-clients who had clearly failed at their employment, or who had failed to make an employable impression during an actual interview situation.

The placement department of the MHM project extensively reviewed the records of its patient-clients. From these records, a pool of items was compiled, listing personality traits and behaviors incompatible with successful employment. The content of these items was relevant to pre-employment (e.g., employer contacts, interview situations) and on-the-job behaviors. In this manner, qualities could be identified that are common to restored mental patients who were classified as "hardcore unemployed."

Description of the "Hardcore Unemployed"

The research demonstrated statistically that 15 of the behavioral items are common to the hardcore unemployed person. Many of these are of a general nature and are not necessarily the result of emotional illness. Also, the items do not relate to the psychological components of the bahviors. The purpose of the

(*Continued on page 15*)

Carl E. Holland (left), Psychodrama Coordinator for the Fort Logan Mental Health Center, directs a psychodrama involving a patient (in chair) and two staff members. Psychodrama is used to help a patient relive the past and see problems more clearly.

SOCIAL DISSENT WITHOUT LOGIC OR RESTRAINT CAN BE A VIRULENT POISON*

"THERE IS NO NEED FOR VIOLENCE OR CIVIL DISOBEDIENCE WHERE LIBERTY IS SAFEGUARDED BY TENETS OF THE CONSTITUTION."

GLENN S. DUMKE

On November 24, 1808, Thomas Jefferson wrote a letter to his grandson, in which he warned against disputes with students. He told him to keep aloof from them.

"There are two classes of disputants most frequently to be met with among us. The first is of young students, just entered the threshold of science, with a first view of its outlines, not yet filled up with the details and modifications which a further progress would bring to their knowledge. The other consists of the ill-tempered and rude men in society who have taken up a passion for politics. (Good humor and politeness never introduce into mixed society a question on which they foresee there will be a difference of opinion.) From both of these classes of disputants, my dear Jefferson, keep aloof, as you would from the infected subjects of yellow fever or pestilence. Consider yourself, when with them, as among the patients of Bedlam, needing medical more than moral counsel. Be a listener only, keep within yourself, and endeavor to establish with yourself the habit of silence especially on politics. In the fevered state of our country, no good can ever result from any attempt to set one of these fiery zealots to rights, either in fact or principle. They are determined as to the facts they will believe, and the opinions on which they will act. Get by them, therefore, as you would by an angry bull; it is not for a man of sense to dispute the road with such an animal."

Student dissent, therefore, is not new, nor is militancy on the streets or on the campus. Arguments between town and gown were popular and violent in the Middle Ages. The students of Harvard College have always been a trial to their staid Puritan neighbors, and the student throughout history has been regarded by many as an irresponsible, bohemian type, who, if not carefully watched, would gladly upset the comfortable status quo. Our present decade of dissent stands out by contrast, because its noisy generation was immediately preceded by a silent generation. Placid as a potato. What we fail to recognize is that the silent generation was the one out of pattern—not the present noisy one, which is undergirded by generations of solid and respectable tradition.

Now all this does not mean that,

**Delivered before the California Bond Club, San Francisco, April 10, 1968.*

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venerable as student dissent is, it can be brushed off like an oversized mosquito. Campus controversy has had its effect on the world, some good, some bad. But it has brought about change. And there is always the possibility that the mosquito may carry within its sting a mortal virus. Merely watching it, nervously, is not enough. It is up to us to contain it and, if possible, direct it. But if we are to do more than be just jittery observers, we must decide, first of all what we want our educational institutions to be and how we want them to operate.

There are two very clearcut views on this matter emerging from the present turbulence. One is that the public establishes colleges and universities to carry on the traditions of the culture, to preserve what is best in the civilization, and to enable the wisdom of the fathers to be passed on to the children. The other is that the academic community is properly the conscience of society and that it should point the way to needed change and, if need be, serve as a staging area to bring it about.

The proper resolution to this dilemma is like most proper resolutions—midway between the two extremes. The academic community does have the obligation to transmit the wisdom of the past, to preserve what is best in the culture, and to serve as a stabilizing influence in resisting the winds of change. On the other hand, it must also serve as the willing scrutinizer and evaluator of new ideas, so that necessary change, when it comes, arrives with a full panoply of understanding, and so that change, if adopted, can be adopted with as much knowledge of the consequences and alternatives as possible.

What are some of the causes of dissent? The list could be exhaustive, but let us tick off a few examples:

We are an affluent society. For the first time in our national history we are not preoccupied with the striving for bread and a roof over our heads. The Horatio Alger morality has vanished like smoke in a high wind because there is no more need for people to discipline their lives in order to avoid misery and poverty. The welfare state has removed the necessity. Not having to concern ourselves with our own future, we can afford time to worry about other things, like the busy mother who postponed her nervous breakdown until all the children left home because up to that moment she had had no time for it.

Among the things we worry about is the war in Vietnam. We have not yet learned to bear the burdens of world responsibility with equanimity, as Rome did in the days of the Caesars, and as Britain did under Victoria.

Of course, one of the reasons we worry about war as we never did before is that the consequences of war have changed in a sudden and terrible manner with the discovery of nuclear power.

All of these seismic occurrences have shaken the faith of humanity in the same way that the fall of Rome, the Reformation, Copernicus, and Darwinism shook it in earlier ages. We should, however, not be surprised that $E=mc^2$ has equally shattered our calm. With the shaking of our faith in our traditional philosophies, religions, and social concepts, we see a weakened church striving to recover itself through internal revolution, and a weakened family puzzled and frightened over the generation gap. Considering the instability of all the agencies which previously exercised authority over our culture, it is no wonder that we exalt permissiveness because we no longer know which authority to cling to.

With the decline of moral and institutional authority, the idealists among us—and there are many—have turned to a concerned humanism as an ineffective substitute for their previous anchors to windward.

Coupled with all of these things is the sudden development of new and sophisticated ways to deal with groups and crowds and masses of mankind. Some of this we learned from the dictators; some has emerged from our disciplined probing into psychology and sociology. Some has come directly from new and rapid communication techniques. But the fact remains that we know more today about how to manipulate masses of people than we ever did before. And this happened at the precise time in history when the politics of the state managed to convince many people that standing on one's own feet as an individual was no longer really necessary.

Finally, partly as a cause and partly as a result of the things we have just mentioned, has come a sudden self-consciousness about ethnic problems and a determination to solve them. And the very confrontation of that issue has erupted in a variety of new kinds of social dissent.

These and other factors have caused the epidemic of dissent among us, both on and off the campus. They are reasonably clear and fairly simple to understand. What is not so clear is that dissent itself—under certain conditions—is nothing to fear. From the Gracchi to Jesus Christ, from Martin Luther to George Washington, dissenters have made names for themselves and for their causes, and often have measurably improved the world. It is not dissent itself that should worry us, but rather the form that it takes in the context of American society. This is the situation that should be brought before our citizens.

It was one thing to lead a militant mob in Paris of 1789, when the best a dissenter could expect was immediate free lodging in the Bastille. It is quite another to lead a militant mob in an America which has a Bill of Rights, a vigilant Supreme Court, an active and competent civil liberties union, and many restrictions on police action. It is one thing to throw Molotov cocktails at a Nazi gauleiter where death or the concentration camp was the inevitable result of independent thought. It is quite another to threaten or use violence in an

America which has a legal system carefully structured to permit itself to be changed by legal means when the occasion warrants and the people feel it necessary.

There is no need for violence or even for civil disobedience in a Nation which has such carefully structured constitutional safeguards for liberty.

Recently there have occurred, on certain college campuses and in major American cities, episodes of inexcusable violence and lawlessness. These episodes are not unique to us; in fact, considering the size of our educational operation, they have been relatively few. For this phenomenon is truly worldwide. From Berkeley to the newly built corridors of the Free University of West Berlin to the Columbia University to the State University in Wilberforce, Ohio, and now to some of our campuses this agitation, this challenge to law and order has spread.

The basis of much of the current unrest is legitimate student and faculty concern with the problems of this Nation and the world. To that extent it is defensible, for such concern is appropriate to the academic community. More and more, however, there is a tendency for this concern to move in dangerous directions to the extent that free discussion and dissent become confused with personal license, violent advocacy and lawlessness. One dangerous development is that special interest groups consider the campus a pawn in their struggle to capture and control the educational matrix. Another is the growth of the idea that the campus is properly a staging area for revolution and violent social and political change. A third and still more common danger area is for protagonists of an idea to consider it quite proper to prevent opponents from expressing their views.

Academic freedom works both ways. If it means anything at all, it means that the guarantee of free expression for one point of view must be accompanied by a similar guarantee of free expression for opposing views. Society has given the academic community a priceless privilege, the privilege of following the truth wherever it leads. But in return for that privilege, society exacts a price—the price is that the academic world consider the problems and the issues and the controversies that beset society, study them objectively, and then give society its best and most profound analysis and recommendations, so that the problems can be solved lawfully in the course of the regular social and political processes.

The moment the campus forgets the atmosphere in which it must deal with controversy, the climate of absolute and unwavering scholarly objectivity, then the campus loses its right to be academically free.

Fabric of a Free Society

In the accomplishment of our tasks, we must recognize that law is the fabric of a free society. Unfree societies are held together by tyrants or by armies or by one-party systems, but free societies hold themselves together by agreement on the law. If we tear this fabric, we will inevitably lose our freedom, and it matters not whether the assault comes by violence or by the more insidious method of civil disobedience. Once the law is gone, our freedom is gone with it, and the only alternative to freedom is the lack of it.

Higher education really has two main responsibilities in reference to society; one is to do the thing that we have been talking about— study its problems, analyze them, and make recommendations for improvement. But the other job, and one which seems to be largely forgotten in recent weeks and months, is that of preserving what is good in society.

There has never been another nation in which people have lived so well or with so much freedom as in our own. It is a deep responsibility of the academic community to see to it that, in its yearning for change and a solution to gnawing problems, we do not destroy the good along with the bad.

I am not talking about constraints on freedom, or social responsibility or the right of the individual to disagree with his government. Quite the contrary, I believe that these principles—all well ingrained in the fabric of American civilization—*must* be upheld and protected from those who would do violence to them.

The academic community always has been one of the consciences of society. This is one of its most venerable functions. It is a questioner, a worrier, a critic, an idealist, seeking a better way toward human aspiration and fulfillment. But a thorn is not a lance. A critic is not a thug. And the right to question presumes the right of others to question also.

The integrity of the academic community must be protected, not merely for those who wish to dissent, but also for those who wish not to dissent. It must be protected as much for the scholar who, as an individual, is committed to social involvement as for the scholar who wishes to pursue his right of scholarly detachment and disengagement. American society is built upon the principle that the best society is a two-way street which no one has the right to block.

Peaceful assembly, free expression of ideas, the option to dissent, these are our historic fundamental rights, lived for, fought for, and died for by dissenters and nondissenters alike.

Equally fundamental is respect for the rights of others and dedication to the orderly process of change under law. Yet when rights are twisted to excuse violent behavior which threatens the preservation of the rights themselves, the academic community finds itself in a morass, which bids fair not only to overwhelm the academic community but our free society as well. The fact that threats of violence and injury to the rights of others take place on a

college campus gives such acts no protective mantle of respectability.

Everyone agrees that we must permit dissent, in appropriate and constitutionally protected forms, but that we must not permit it to take the form of force, violence, or an undermining of our system of peaceful change through law.

Here is where you become of the utmost significance to society as well. Because if we are wrenched or warped into some new malformation as a result of unlawful dissent, or over-reaction to it, all of society and this Nation will suffer. There are several ways in which you can help.

One is to put recent eruptions in perspective. They are like a boil on one's nose—it does not represent total corruption of the bloodstream, and is seldom fatal. It is merely unsightly and painful while it lasts, but is is not an indication of the basic health of the whole body.

The campus could hardly be expected to be immune from what is going on in society as a whole, and the latter insisted that the campus should hold itself above the general level and serve as a beacon for mankind. Both, of course, are right. To expect a college president to maintain an island of absolute calm while the streets of Detroit and other cities run with blood and crackle with the flames of burning buildings, and bus drivers in Los Angeles insist on shotgun guards for their runs in certain sections of the city, is somewhat unrealistic, to put it mildly. On the other hand, our constant effort should be to make campuses better than the world around them, and—despite some of the warped opinions which have developed recently—they usually are.

Social dessent is like a strong medicine. If used properly and according to prescription, it can remedy many ills of the body politic. But if it is overused or used wrongly, it can prove as fatal as the most virulent poison. Public understanding of the basic issues can furnish the best set of directions for the use of this critical potion.

The classic statement by Justice Learned Hand still points our way. In his book, "The Spirit of Liberty," Justice Hand says:

". . . you may not carry a sword beneath a scholar's gown, or lead flaming causes from a cloister . . . a scholar who tries to combine those parts sells his birthright for a mess of pottage . . . when the final count is made it will be found that the impairment of his powers far outweighs any possible contribution to the causes he has espoused. If he is fit to serve in his calling at all, it is because he has learned not to serve in any other, for his singleness of mind quickly evaporates in the fire of passions, however holy."

"You cannot carry a sword beneath a scholars gown," said Justice Hand, yet that is what some of us are trying to do. We must learn that lesson, and learn it well, for if we do not, our gowns will be torn from us, and throughout history the unfrocked priest, no matter how pious or well-intentioned, has always lost his influence in the order.

Counseling Handicapped

(*Continued from page 11*)

research was not to present psychological descriptions of the hardcore individual but to describe him in common work-relevant terminology.

The characteristics contributing to the determination of the hardcore unemployed person are conveniently classified within the categories of motivational considerations, vocational characteristics, and personal characteristics.

The unemployed patient-client appears to experience motivational difficulties relative to the employment situation. He is characterized by resistant behavior and, many times, refusal to accept referrals to various potential employers. The hardcore individual also has a tendency to miss or avoid appointments for placement or counseling interviews. It is obvious that if an individual fails to appear for several interviews, he is likely to be unemployable. It may be that restored mental patients experience many imagined or real prejudices associated with the fact that they have been exposed to psycshiatric hospitalization. The responsibility of the employment counselor is to make recommendations concerning programs that can assist this person in overcoming motivational trouble areas. The previous example of Robert S. illustrates that assistance is indeed available to modify an individual's unemployability.

Behavior During Interview

Personal behavior during the employment interview is an extremely important variable to the prospective employer. Here again, the hardcore unemployed person has shortcomings. He manifests many behaviors that are perceived as being inappropriate during the placement or counseling interviews. Many times he speaks either too slowly or too rapidly and has difficulty in making himself understood. Often, he gives the appearance of having a lack of physical vitality. Finally, the hardcore unemployed individual shows no evidence of being able to handle leadership responsibilities. It should be stated that this person is not necessarily unable to perform satisfactorily on an actual job. He has so much difficulty in overcoming the perceived threats of the interview situation, or even appearing for the interview, that he is usually not even given the opportunity for performance evaluation in a given hired position.

The hardcore person also experiences problems from a strictly vocational standpoint. Because he is hardcore, he obviously lacks meaningful work experience. He is characterized by not successfully maintaining any job for 9 months or longer. This lack of vocational success would contribute to his overall alienation from the work environment because he does not find any meaning in employment.

(*Continued on page 23*)

PILOTS
as a national resource

JACK HURT

The interior of the Boeing 747, shown here in full-scale mock-up, will feature high ceilings, wide aisles, spacious seating and living-room comfort. The interior measures 20 feet across and more than 8 feet high. One of the large air lines has ordered 12 of the 747's for delivery starting in the fall of 1969.

Trans World Airlines photo

This Nation is prosperous, strong, materially richer than any in history—largely because of the knowledge, skills, competence, and creativity of our people. The availability of a well-trained and increasingly well-educated labor force has been a key element in the smooth functioning and continued growth of our dynamic economy. Trained manpower—perhaps more than any other single resource—is the factor which sets the upper limit for our economic expansion in the future.

The air transportation industry clearly reflects the relationship between the availability of highly trained personnel and the potential for growth and technological innovation. For example, we all know that airline reservations have been speeded up enormously and made more reliable by the adoption of computer techniques. A prerequisite to the successful computerization of airline reservations was, of course, the availability of qualified manpower to introduce, to operate, and to maintain the system.

Our focus here is on one very essential air transportation occupation —that of pilot. We are all aware of the marked contrast between the pilot of the early decades of this century and the pilot of today and tomorrow. In the early days of flying, most aviators were dare-devils who specialized in stunt and exhibition flying. Today, in order to qualify for a commercial pilot's license, in addition to a required number of flying hours, a pilot must have a far more sophisticated training background which includes study in the theory of flight, Federal aviation regulations, navigation, and meteorology. His efficiency is maintained through periodic checks and retraining programs. Should he change to a different type of aircraft, back he goes to the simulator to familiarize himself with that aircraft.

In 1931, just 4 years after Lindbergh's flight across the Atlantic, when the airlines were still in their infancy, some 700 pilots carried half a million revenue passengers. By 1960, the scheduled U.S. air carriers employed 13,500 pilots and copilots and carried almost 58 million passengers. Growth continued brisk; by 1967, as the employment of pilots in this category reached 24,500, the number of passengers carried soared to over 133 million. This figure does not include another 32,000 or so pilots employed in other civil air carrier categories and general aviation including business flying.

Jack Hurt is Deputy Director, U.S. Employment Service. This article is adapted from an address before the Aviation/Space Writers Convention in Cocoa Beach, Fla., on May 21, 1968.

Business Outlook for Air Transportation

The phenomenal growth of the air transportation industry during the past few years has far exceeded forecasts of the early 1960's. Last year, revenue passenger miles almost reached the 100 billion mark—more than three times the record of a decade previous. According to the Air Transport Association, the 133 million passengers carried last year more than doubled the number 10 years earlier. By 1979, FAA figures indicate, U.S. airlines are expected to fly a total of 342 billion revenue passenger-miles and carry 444 million passengers in scheduled domestic and international service.

The demand for transportation of cargo by air has also increased sharply in recent years—topping 3.5 billion cargo-ton-miles in 1967. By 1970, an all-cargo plane capable of carrying nearly three times as much freight as today's largest cargo aircraft will be entering airline fleets.

At the same time, there has been a strong uptrend in all phases of business flying and other types of general aviation activity, and the outlook for continued growth in the next decade is extremely favorable. The number of active general aviation aircraft rose from 84,000 in 1963 to 105,000 in 1967. The FAA forecast is that the number of these aircraft will nearly double to exceed 200,000 by 1979.

We all have to agree with George W. James, vice president of the Air Transport Association of America, who has said: "The air transport industry knows well the meaning of the word 'growth'; it has expanded beyond even the wildest dreams of those within the industry itself."

At the Department of Labor, we are especially concerned with the manpower needs and the growth in job opportunities which accompany industry expansion. There are already an estimated 275,000 persons employed by the U.S. scheduled airlines. In addition, Federal Aviation Administration forecasts of continu-

ing increases in passenger travel, as well as in general aviation operations, suggest that the air transportation industry will be providing additional job opportunities for many more thousands in the years ahead. In order to accommodate the greater size and the increased number of larger capacity aircraft due to be introduced during the next few years, airport terminal facilities and staff also will be expanded considerably. So, in spite of technological advances—including the introduction of the supersonic transport and new short-haul aircraft for local services—as well as improved manpower utilization practices, expanding civil aviation business activity is expected to increase substantially the annual requirements for pilots, mechanics, and other ground service personnel.

The Overall Manpower Outlook to 1975

One of the manpower challenges of the next decade is to prepare for the supply-demand pulsations of the job market caused by exploding technological change. New sophisticated skills must be acquired to operate and service new types of aircraft—"jumbo" jets capable of flying 500 people at 600 miles an hour and supersonic airplanes that will fly 1,800 miles an hour.

Changes in the air transportation industry over the next few years will occur in a setting of significant changes in the size and composition of the country's labor force expected to take place during the remainder of the 1960's and in the early 1970's. By 1975, the total labor force is expected to increase to over 92 million—more than 11 million higher than today. This is almost equivalent to adding another State the size of California and Michigan combined in the next 7 years.

Just to keep pace with the increase in labor supply and to hold unemployment rates at about present levels, new job opportunities must be created at the rate of 1.5 million each year. Increases in employment in technical and service occupations for the decade ending in 1975 are due to be somewhat sharper than the average for all occupations. A high proportion of the air transportation industry's employment is and will continue to be in both of these categories. From what we know of the air transportation industry's past and anticipated expansion, it will contribute its share of new jobs to our overall employment growth in the next few years.

A large part of the new labor force additions in the years to 1975 will, of course, be young workers. While the next growth of the labor force is about 1.5 million per year, on a gross basis—discounting deaths, retirements, and other withdrawals—the number of new labor force additions each year to 1975 will total approximately 3 million workers.

From this large group of young people, the air transportation industry will have to compete with

United Air Lines photo
A flight crew operates jet liner controls.

Air traffic controllers use radar and radio to guide aircraft.

Federal Aviation Agency photo

other industries to recruit and train not only pilots, but also specialists, such as airframe and power plant mechanics, electricians, instrument specialists, air traffic controllers, flight attendants, and other aircraft servicing and traffic servicing personnel. How well the industry can keep pace with the demand for air transportation services depends to a large degree on how many of this group of young workers can be persuaded to undertake extensive training required of pilots and aircraft mechanics, and the extent to which such training is open to persons of all types of racial, social, and ethnic backgrounds.

We all know that the contribution of military training to commercial aviation always has been highly significant. According to a survey conducted by the Air Transport Association in early 1967, two-thirds of all pilots hired during 1966 and two-thirds of those employed at the time of the survey had their principal training in the military services. Military training for pilots, however, is today but a fraction of what it was during World War II and considerably below the peak reached during the Korean conflict. Thus, the airlines have to rely on their own recruitment efforts and training programs to draw increasingly on other than military sources to prepare to meet future requirements for pilots.

Not only are there significantly fewer pilots being trained by the military today, but there is also concern about the constant and sizable growth in the number of pilots holding the Air Transport Rating (ATR) certificate who are in the middle and older age brackets—that is 45 years of age or over. In 1961, this group constituted *one-quarter* of the ATR population. Today this group represents *more than half* of the total.

Impact of Growth Trends on Needs for Pilots

Faced as we are with the prospect of broad-scale expansion in civil aviation business activity—in terms of aircraft in service, of revenue passenger miles flown, of air cargo ton-miles transported, and of hours flown—it is only natural that considerable attention is being focused on the future supply-demand situation for airplane pilots, as well as for various types of airplane mechanics.

To make possible the kind of growth anticipated for the near future, planning is needed *now* to insure that qualified manpower—especially in occupations requiring expensive long lead-time training—will be available. An important first step in this direction is to project the probable impact that anticipated growth (both in air carrier and general aviation) and the shift to

more complex, higher performance aircraft will have on the demand for and the training need for both pilots and related occupational categories.

Nature of Department of Labor Survey

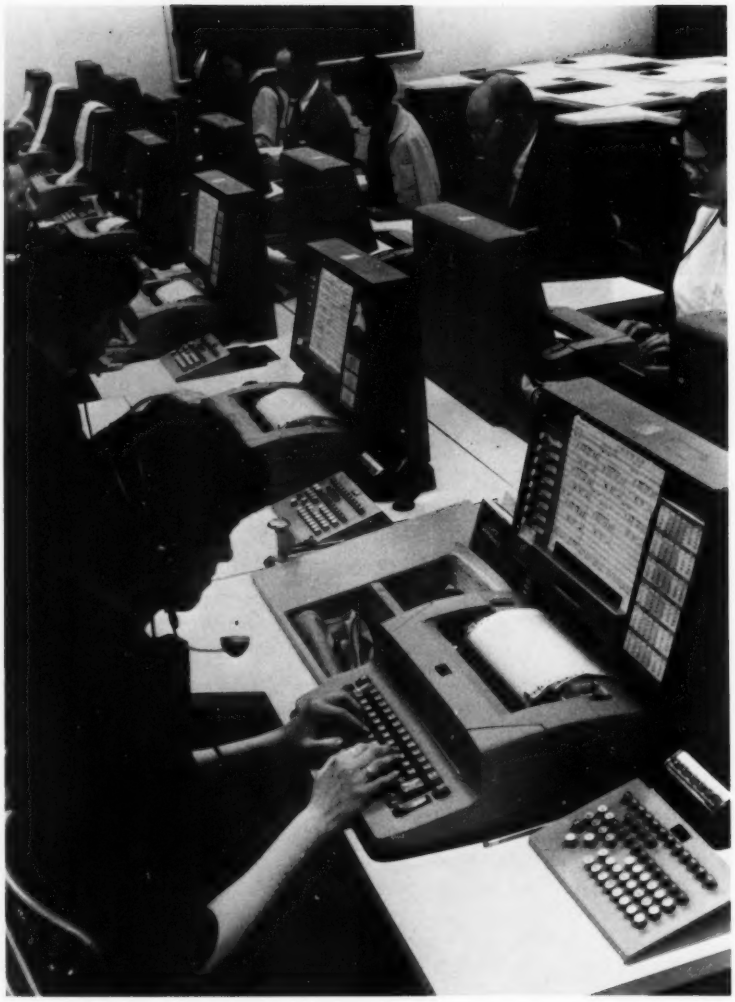
In recognition of the need for comprehensive information, the Department of Labor is now conducting a study of the supply-demand situation for pilots and mechanics in the civil air transportation industry. The survey is being done jointly by the Department of Labor's Bureau of Employment Security (of which the U.S. Employment Service is a part) and the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Each Bureau has taken on certain areas of responsibility in carrying out four separate phases of activity involved in this survey.

The Department's study aims to provide information on current levels of employment in these occupations as well as on projections—both short- and long-range—of future manpower requirements and of the resources that will be available to meet them. This study is being done under contract with the Federal Aviation Administration and the Department of Defense—the two Federal agencies most concerned with manpower developments in civil aviation.

FAA and Defense Interest

The FAA's concern stems from its responsibility for projections of many aviation-related activities. The information and data obtained from this study will be useful in developing a "base" and guidelines for developing these estimates. Manpower requirements and resources in many instances have a relationship to, or correlation with, such items as: (1) aircraft on order; (2) aircraft in service; (3) airborne hours; (4) revenue miles; (5) fuel consumption; (6) aircraft production; (7) operating and planning of airports; (8) aircraft control operations, etc.

The Department of Defense's interest in the current manpower situation in civil aviation has, of course, been heightened by the impact of the Vietnam situation. Department of Defense ability to attract and retain the high caliber of young people needed to pilot military aircraft has always been correlated with job opportunities in civil aviation. In cosponsoring our survey, the Department of Defense hoped to get a better picture of the current and potential market in the civilian economy for graduates of its pilot training programs.



American Airlines photo

Agents use electronic equipment to confirm customers' reservations.

At the time our survey was initiated, the need for information on the current situation and projections of future manpower needs in civil aviation had become increasingly apparent in view of the rapid growth in virtually all segments of the industry during the past few years. Projections by usually reliable research organizations made as recently as 1964 with respect to

manpower needs for pilots and mechanics in 1970 have already been surpassed. These estimates erred on the low side mainly because, while increases in productivity due to new equipment were foreseen, no one then projected the tremendous growth in passenger miles, hours flown, and the number of aircraft in use which has occurred in the past few years.

Coverage of the Survey

The current Labor Department study will cover pilots and mechanics in civil aviation's two main categories—civil air carriers and general aviation. The better known, but by far the smaller of the two in terms of number of individual airplanes, are the civil air carriers. Civil air carriers include scheduled airlines, supplemental and interstate carriers, commercial operators, and all-cargo carriers. The general aviation category includes all other segments of the industry—business flying, air taxi services, crop dusters, flight and ground schools, aircraft repair stations, and government establishments using planes in their operations.

As mentioned earlier, there are four phases to the study. The *first phase,* which has already been completed, was designed to provide a quick summary picture of the current employment situation in the civil air carriers section of the industry. It was based on reports, collected by State Employment Services affiliated with the USES, from 223 certified air carriers employing about 85 percent of the almost 250,000 workers in this part of the industry. Our report on the findings of this phase of our study was transmitted to the Department of Defense and FAA in August 1967. It showed that by and large, despite the sizable growth of the past few years, airline operations as of mid-1967 were generally not being impeded by manpower shortages.

Phase 2 of the study is now underway. This represents a much more comprehensive and in-depth survey of current and short-term needs for pilots and mechanics for both civil air carriers and general aviation. Questionnaires already have been sent to a total of about 2,400 firms which will be covered by this survey. These include all civil air carriers, and a 10 percent sample representing a cross-section of the various subcategories of general aviation. (I will elaborate on this portion of our study somewhat later since it constitutes the major part of the USES contribution to the overall Department study.)

Pan American World Airways photo

Line mechanics check landing gear on a jet aircraft.

The *third phase* of the Department's review is the responsibility of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Its responsibility relates primarily to estimating the long-term—up to 10 years—manpower needs of the industry. BLS is doing this, not only by developing information from major industry employers, but also through its studies and projections of long-term labor force and employment changes for the country as a whole, and for various industry subdivisions. This is being supplemented by industry discussions and by contacts with manufacturers, the FAA, Department of Defense, and other groups.

The individual activities of the USES and BLS in the study thus will dovetail and complement each other. Under general aviation, we will develop estimates of additional pilot needs from those companies which are now flying planes—while the BLS will be responsible for estimating requirements for firms which do not now own planes, but which may be expected to have them in the future. BLS also will be responsible for developing estimates of pilot and other manpower requirements for the new supersonic planes, since our employer questionnaire cuts off as of 1970.

BLS hopes to finish its share of the study some time this summer, and we are planning to complete our analysis of the employer questionnaire data by early fall. The *fourth and final phase* of the study then will represent a consolidation of the BES and BLS findings under Phases 2

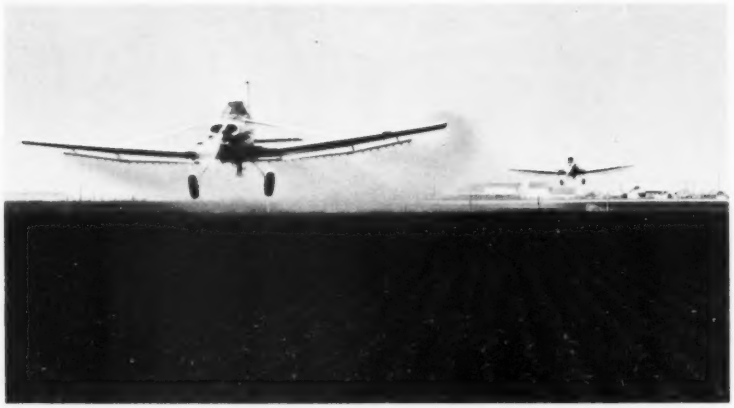


Photo courtesy Air Transport Assn.

Crop dusting requires skilled pilots.

More pilots will be needed for local short-haul flights.

Photo courtesy Air Transport Assn.

and 3, and the preparation of a composite Department of Labor report to the Department of Defense and FAA. Our present schedule calls for this composite report to be completed by the yearend.

Employer Questionnaire Information

With regard to the employer survey the USES is conducting in cooperation with the affiliated State Employment Service, the questionnaire was developed with the assistance and cooperation of the FAA and the military service. This was done to insure that the data gathered would be pertinent to their requirements, for the two agencies have a pressing need for numerous items of information on the civil aviation industry.

To encourage response by the individual firms—and we know how burdensome a government questionnaire can become—the number of items in the questionnaire was kept to the absolute minimum. We were especially concerned with the response by firms in general aviation, composed mainly of small companies, for which very little data are available. We are asking for much less data from this group—and these data relate only to total pilots and total mechanics—than for the civil air carrier, where we have several breakouts in each category.

Let me summarize the items included in the USES questionnaire for pilots and mechanics. They are: (1) employment, current, and a year ago; projections 2 years hence; peak employment month in 1967, 1968, and 1970; (2) data on the number of pilots who are 50 years of age or over; (3) estimated replacement needs in 1968 for pilots and mechanics; (4) data on vacancies, including those in existence more than 30 days; (5) number of pilots holding air transport ratings and the number who have attained only a commercial rating; (6) estimated employment of helicopter pilots in 1970; (7) hours flown in the past

12 months; and (8) information on the number of pilots and mechanics to be trained in 1968 by firms and by formal training schools.

Cooperation Is Good

We are getting fine cooperation in assuring adequate response by the firms surveyed. The Air Transportation Association of America, an organization of the scheduled airlines, has encouraged all its members to complete and return the questionnaires. Further, the FAA has agreed to have its General Aviation District Offices make the followups on the nonresponding firms in the air taxi, aerial applicator, aircraft repair stations, and flight and ground schools segments of general aviation.

The more complete the returns, the more useful, of course, the survey findings will be to the industry and to government in planning our manpower development and training efforts.

Once the survey data are in and analyzed, we hope to be able to provide improved and more comprehensive information on:

- Current shortages or surpluses of pilots or mechanics in civil aviation by occupation, category (civil air carrier or general), and geographic location.
- Potential imbalances of occupational manpower requirements and resources should the industry grow at projected rates.
- Principal categories of civil aviation (civil air carrier or general aviation) most likely to be affected by manpower supply-demand imbalances over the short term.
- Whether potential manpower imbalances will be widespread geographically or confined to major air transportation centers.
- Individual geographic areas where the manpower situation is currently critical or expected to be in the near future.
- The impact of the losses of civil aviation pilots due to their reaching compulsory retirement age.
- The adequacy of existing and planned facilities—public and private—to train pilots and mechanics. And in this connection, the feasibility of correlating outputs of training establishments with estimates of future needs for pilots and mechanics.
- And last, but certainly not least, we hope the information gathered in the course of the study will enable us to discuss the potential effect of technological changes on future manpower requirements in civil aviation.

Some indication of the long-term potential effect of technological change on employment in the industry is being investigated by the BLS in its part of this study. It already has developed some preliminary estimates of the needs for pilots some 10 years from now.

These preliminary data suggest that employment of pilots (including copilots and flight engineers) will increase from 57,000 as of June 1967 to 96,000 by June 1977. In addition to this increase of 39,000, the BLS estimates that another 9,500 pilots will be required to replace those who may die or retire during the decade. Thus an additional 48,500 pilots will be required to meet the expected growth in the civil air carrier and general aviation segments of the industry in the next 10 years.

The key problem—for those of us in both industry and government—is to assure, through appropriate manpower training and utilization measures, that the labor supply to meet these needs for both pilots and supporting ground and air personnel, is available when and where needed. We believe both government and industry can contribute to the realization of this objective. The first element in achieving this goal is a recognition that trained manpower, particularly in the pilot category, is truly the primary resource upon which the fantastic growth of this industry has been based in the past and which will be instrumental in assuring its future expansion.

Counseling Handicapped

(*Continued from page 15*)

Coupled with these characteristics is the fact that the hardcore person does not maintain concrete vocational goals. The desires he does maintain are often much too limited; usually only one or two specific jobs. In view of his skills, training, and education, his vocational goal is unrealistic and unreachable. The responsibility of the employment counselor is to assist this person in redefining goals in realistic terms considering the person's abilities.

Summary

The preceding description of the "hardcore unemployed" was based on behaviors that were characteristic of this group, as distinct from more employable people. It was also derived from a specifically defined group of hardcore people—the restored mental patient. However, the description presented is obviously of a more general nature, since these behaviors are not necessarily a by-product of mental illness. Many unemployed people are characterized by qualities such as "no work experience" or "lack of adequate education."

The solutions to the problems of the hardcore must begin with the identification of trouble areas. Once the specific reasons behind a client's unemployment have been identified, the appropriate corrective action can be taken. The solution may be retraining, redefining vocational goals, a job development, or on-the-job followup, but the course of action will be determined by specific problems. Identification of those problems will also aid the employment counselor in efficiently distributing his time in order to provide maximum service to each client.

HOW THE OLDER WORKERS HAVE PROGRESSED SINCE 1965

Older Americans Move Ahead

STANLEY N. FOGED

"Sorry, nothing today . . . we'll call you if anything turns up."

This sentence has been heard frequently by older Americans seeking work since World War II. It was the easy letdown way of telling the applicant "no, you're too old."

Employment problems related to age start to affect some Americans at as early an age as 40 years. By the age of 45, according to a 1965 Report of the Secretary of Labor to the Congress, job possibilities are likely to contract sharply; they shrink more severely at age 55, and virtually vanish by the age of 65.

This deterioration in the employment outlook for middle-aged and older workers has been going on since World War II. Age discrimination in employment has not yet been eliminated. Older workers, particularly men, have comparatively high rates and long periods of unemployment. Some, although still able, are destined never again to enjoy a steady, full-time job. Those who succeed in finding work after having been unemployed for a substantial period must often accept sharply reduced wages.

The irony of the whole problem is that while many of the older workers are searching for jobs, the Nation's employers are crying for workers with the skills and know-how that these very workers possess. The national economy needs their skills, know-how, judgment, loyalty, and all the many assets that evolve with tenure and experience.

The Manpower Administration of the Department of Labor is concerned with developing employment opportunities for these older persons, along with the Office of Economic Opportunity, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, the Civil Service Commission, and the Small Business Administration.

Age Discrimination Is Banned

June 1968 will be a month well remembered by the older workers of this country. It was on June 12 that the Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1968 became effective. On that date employers hiring 50 or more workers, and on June 30 employers hiring 25 or more workers became bound by the strict provisions of the new law.

Covered by the new law are workers aged 40 through 64. Major provisions of the Act make it unlawful:

- For an employer to fire or refuse to hire a person strictly on the basis of his age;
- For employment agencies to refuse to refer a client to a prospective employer for a job opening on the basis of age;

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These older pipeline workers in Louisiana enjoy a coffee break from their duties at the pump house at Knox Field near Baton Rouge.
Photo courtesy Standard Oil (N.J.)

- To state age preferences in help wanted advertisements;
- For labor unions to deny membership to an individual because of age.

In cases where age is a definite and important factor in the actual performance of a specific job, it would be a legitimate reason for nonreferral or not hiring, but the reasons must be most clear-cut. Also, it would not be a violation of the Act, except in relation to hiring, to make age distinctions pursuant to the terms of any bona fide seniority system or employee benefit plans, such as retirement and insurance plans, if these are not subterfuges.

Enforcement will first be tried by voluntary adherence, but if that fails, the Secretary of Labor can go to the courts to force compliance. Individuals also may file suit.

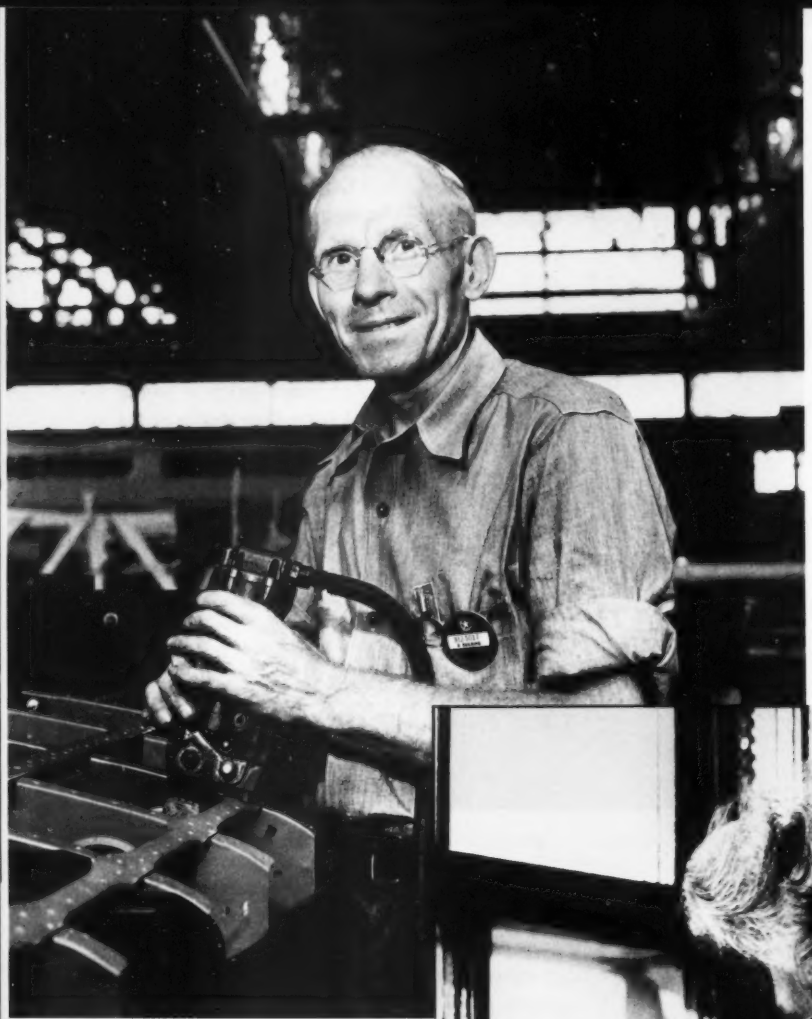
Background to Progress

The Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967 was enacted by the Congress on December 15, 1967. It marked the culmination of a period of study of the problem over several years.

In 1964, the Congress requested a study of the extent and impact of age discrimination in employment in order to consider measures to eliminate this practice. The Department of Labor undertook several studies and inquiries, and in 1965 presented a report to Congress titled "The Older American Worker—Age Discrimination in Employment."

The report found that:

- The older worker suffers a severe disadvantage compared with workers in the prime age groups, and the situation has been getting worse over the years. The unemployment rate of male workers 45 and over is one-fifth greater than the rate for the 35-to-44 group. Moreover, older workers experience longer periods of unemployment than younger groups. This unemployment period averages 8 weeks, or about 75 percent longer than the average for younger workers.
- Despite a generally improved national employment situation, the proportion of men who have been out of work for more than 6 months is rising. Such long-term unemployment results in loss of skill and decreased motivation, which makes the worker less acceptable to prospective employers.
- In 1964, 29 million workers aged 45 or older were reported in the work force. By 1980, this number may rise to 34 million.



Henry Peterson is justifiably proud of doing a good job in the Martin Aircraft Company factory.

A grandmother enjoys a chat with her "foster grandson" in a children's home. More than 4,000 elderly men and women, in 40 States and Puerto Rico, are employed for a few hours per day to bring love and care to more than 10,000 small children in institutions. The Foster Grandparents Program is financed through the Office of Economic Opportunity.

- Older workers now comprise about 38 percent of the work force, and, in spite of the increase in numbers, the percentage will decline to an estimated 33⅓ percent by 1980.

With these findings in mind, the Secretary of Labor recommended action on four fronts: Eliminating arbitrary age discrimination in employment; changing institutional arrangements that work to the disadvantage of older workers; making more work available to older persons; and enlarging educational programs to meet the needs of older persons.

Some of the specific proposals included: Increasing the opportunities for older workers under the Manpower Development and Training Act, especially programs providing on-the-job training; developing new techniques for training adult workers; creating greater opportunities for basic education for adults, including income supplements to make this education possible.

The Manpower Administration of the Department of Labor has been actively pursuing programs to achieve these goals. Programs giving direct service to older workers have been set up and are operating in the United States Employment Service and the affiliated State Employment Service offices, the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, and the Bureau of Work-Training Programs. Programs of research and demonstration are being conducted by the Manpower Administration, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and others.

Training, Counseling, and Placement

Congress amended the Manpower Development and Training Act in 1966 to provide counseling, training, and placement services especially for older workers. Although more than 25 percent of all unemployed workers in 1966 were 45 or older, they represented only 11 percent of the MDTA trainees.

MDTA demonstration projects have shown that older workers can profit substantially from occupational training. Trainees in the 45-and-over age group have been almost as successful as younger trainees in obtaining work. About 85 percent of the older workers who have completed institutional training and about 95 percent of older persons who have taken on-the-job training were placed.

Recognizing the help that training can offer to older workers and, at the same time, taking note of the relatively low proportion of older workers who received such training in previous years, the Manpower Administration in 1966 formulated plans to encourage the training of large numbers of older workers.

The Manpower Administration issued guidelines for the use of States in preparing their manpower development plans for fiscal year 1967, setting a national target of extending institutional training opportunities to 56,400 older persons.

The full achievement of this goal during fiscal 1967 depended upon overcoming the natural reluctance of older workers to take this training and upon enlisting the support of employers.

The national network of State Employment Service offices, coordinated by the Bureau of Employment Security, is the chief source of counseling and job finding for older persons. The special counseling services and the developing of individual job opportunities include visits to employers to encourage and stimulate employment of older workers and to bring older workers and employers together.

Since the resources available during 1965 were too limited to permit specialized services to all who needed them, the Secretary of Labor recommended the strengthening and expansion of such services. Accordingly, the appropriations for 1966 provided for the addition of 100 specialists for older workers to the affiliated Employment Services. One-third of these were for State administrative offices, and the remainder were for five metropolitan offices where they would

An 83-year-old Green Thumber in Wabasha County, Minn.

A Becker County, Minn. worker planting potted plants.

provide staff for demonstration programs featuring concentration of counseling and job placement services for older workers.

In fiscal year 1967, $2.5 million was appropriated to increase the older worker programs of the Bureau of Employment Security. The funds are being used by the U.S. Employment Service to establish older worker service units in the local offices of 20 major cities. California was able to expand the program to include 2 additional cities, bringing the total to 22 new cities. These units are in addition to the five provided in 1966.

The older worker service units are basically a concentrated augmentation of staff, to be used, on a full-time basis, for intensified services to older workers. Operationally, the units vary from city to city, adapting to local organizational patterns and service needs.

With the emergence of the Human Resources Development concept of Employment Service operations, other changes have taken place in the original structuring. The service requirements of the older workers have fitted in so completely in almost all respects to the HRD programs that older worker specialists have been deployed for more efficient services. However, whether they operate as a unit or are deployed, the older worker service units remain as functional entities, with a unit supervisor, frequent staff meetings, and a cohesiveness which will promote most effectively the objectives of the older worker services program. The ultimate goal of the program is to have older worker service units operating in each of the 56 major metropolitan areas within the next few years.

In offices which do not have older worker service centers, services to older workers are provided by regular staff. One worker usually is assigned as an older worker specialist to see that older worker applicants receive appropriate services.

The HRD program, with its emphasis on in-depth services on an individualized basis, is an especially suitable context in which older workers can be served effectively. These people are among those who need our services most, but who too frequently have been denied service because of the severity and complexity of their problems. In this group, we have the widow forced to return to the job market with little or no work experience; the unemployed man in his fifties with obsolete job skills; the middle-aged man, suddenly out of work, who has no idea of how to go about job hunting; the long-term unemployed person, steeped in discouragement; and the elderly retiree in dire need of part-time employment to supplement a meager pension income. Add to this the chronically unemployed, and those who have their age problem compounded by many other forms of disadvantagement.

The specialized knowledge, the in-depth interviewing and counseling, and the persistent job development process which are needed to serve these varied applicants with their complex problems, all are synonymous with the HRD program.

The results are not in yet, due to the time required for staffing and organizing the 22 new service units, but in several of the operating units counseling is provided to half or more of the applicants. In compari-

Warrick County, Ind. Green Thumbers sawing wood at Scales Lake State Park.

son, on a national basis, local offices counsel only about 1 out of 14 new applicants among the older-persons group.

Older persons have been served by the Employment Service in the regular course of daily business for many years. More recently, in 1966, 1.7 million applicants who were 45 or over—15.6 percent of the total number of applicants—came to the Employment Service for help. Of this number, 119,612 received counseling, and 1.31 million placements were made, almost one out of every five placements made by the Employment Service during the year.

In fiscal 1967, applications, counseling, and placements remained at about the same pace, although some increase became evident in applications and counseling interviews. With current favorable economic conditions, the applicant group for whom these services are being provided consists of persons who are, to a large extent, difficult to place. Such services must be intensive and require a great deal of time.

Research and Demonstration Projects

The Manpower Administration has been concerned with experimental and demonstration projects related to older worker services.

Under an experimental and demonstration manpower contract with the Department of Labor, the National Council on Aging has sponsored a series of projects in six cities (Asheville, Baltimore, Boston, Cleveland, Milwaukee, and South Bend) to explore the feasibility of helping unemployed older workers obtain jobs through a variety of techniques. These include testing, retraining where indicated, and special employment assistance. The projects were designed to mobilize supportive services around manpower efforts based on broad community involvement.

At the end of 1966, a Manpower Order on a special program of services for workers 45 years of age or older was issued. The order established new policies which should widen opportunities for older persons:

- No person shall be denied referral to an MDTA training project because of age limitation, and every effort should be made to identify older workers whose employability can be increased or improved through training.
- Provision should be made for increased training and retraining of older workers.
- Experimental and demonstration projects should seek to develop new approaches to meet the distinctive needs of older workers.
- More intensive job development efforts and placement services should be undertaken for older workers.

In another research project funded by the Manpower Administration, the Employment Service investigated the feasibility of extending services to older workers through neighborhood centers manned by volunteers.

Two types of centers were opened in both Sacramento and Louisville between October 1966 and January 1968 specifically to determine if:

- By establishing a service facility in a neighborhood environment, a significant number of un-

This Becker County, Minn. Green Thumb crew is building a bath house at Eagle Lake.

employed older workers can be served by the public Employment Service;

- A neighborhood service facility can recruit volunteers to carry out, or help carry out, operations;
- The facility can be operated effectively with a staff of volunteer workers who have received training especially adapted to prepare them for this function; and
- A neighborhood facility can find and develop job opportunities, including part-time and temporary job openings, in the neghborhood over and above those generally listed with the Employment Service, particularly those which could be performed by older workers within the neighborhood area.

The two employment centers in each city were the Model A, in a neighborhood setting, and Model B, set up in an existing facility currently serving older persons. The Employment Service project staff comprised a project director, a training specialist, a secretary, and a paid professional consultant for each city. Volunteers were recruited and trained to staff the centers, under direction of the project director. Services provided by the volunteers included applicant recruitment, selection and referral, order taking, and job development. Volunteers were paid $2 expense money daily.

The Louisville project was the more successful of the two. All of the four specific purposes were demonstrated significantly. Services were provided to 973 older worker applicants, of which 405, or 42 percent, were placed in full-time or part-time jobs. All of the Louisville volunteeer workers were over 50 years of age, and half were over 65. There were 41 volunteers in all, with 10 or 12 working at one time.

In Sacramento, all the specific purposes were demonstrated, but the results were not as conclusive as in Louisville. Of the 51 volunteers contacted, 30 were selected and trained, and 18 worked for more than 3 months.

Policies of this caliber and the special emphasis given to older worker programs, coinciding with the shift of several employment programs from the Office of Economic Opportunity to the Department of Labor, should strengthen the ability of the Department to serve the Nation's older workers.

Project Green Thumb

An example of projects shifted to the Department of Labor from the Office of Economic Opportunity is Project Green Thumb.

In 1965 Senator Gaylord Nelson of Wisconsin introduced an amendment to the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. This amendment, when it was signed into law, permitted the setting up of Project Green Thumb by the Office of Economic Opportunity. The initial projects—located in Minnesota, New Jersey, Arkansas, and Oregon—tested the training and future employment possibilities as workers in community development and beautification projects of more than 300 older men having low incomes and a farming background.

Greeen Thumb was developed in conjunction with the State Highway Commissions, Park and Maintenance Departments, and Soil Conservation Districts. It was financed originally with $768,000 in OEO funds and $680,000 in State and local contributions. The project was developed by Green Thumb, Inc., a subsidiary of the National Farmers Union.

Today's Project Green Thumb is administered by the Bureau of Work-Training Programs of the Department of Labor's Manpower Administration as part of Operation Mainstream. Assistant Secretary John Ekeberg, Deputy Administrator of the Bureau of Work-Training Programs, and President Tony T. Dechant of the National Farmers Union and Green Thumb, Inc., recently signed a new contract providing an additional $166,623 in Federal funds to support the new projects. This amount will fund demonstration Green Thumb projects that will provide on-the-

(*Continued on page 41*)

Where the jobs are going to be

Gaining

These metropolitan areas...	...could employ this many more people by 1975 and still hold unemployment to 4% or less
San Jose [Calif.]	674,000
Anaheim-Santa Ana [Calif.]	668,000
Washington, DC	422,000
San Bernardino [Calif.]	401,000
Tampa-St. Petersburg	307,000
Dallas	249,000
Phoenix	240,000
San Francisco	222,000
Houston	201,000
Atlanta	197,000
New York/Long Island	133,000

Losing

These metropolitan areas...	...should lose this many people by 1975 to keep unemployment rate at 4% or less
Detroit	666,000
Los Angeles/Long Beach	541,000
Pittsburgh	499,000
Buffalo	391,000
San Diego	361,000
Milwaukee	295,000
Cleveland	264,000
Chicago	253,000
Philadelphia	222,000
Cincinnati	185,000
Boston/Lawrence	182,000

Mapping a Route for the Jobless

University of Maryland's input-output model of regional economic growth shows that larger cities will have fewer jobs while smaller ones will be short of workers.

Unless the bigger industrial cities—such as Pittsburgh, Detroit, and Milwaukee—can begin exporting workers, they will find it tougher in the next decade to hold the unemployment rate to its current 4-percent level. But many smaller cities will have jobs a-begging if more people don't move in.

In the view of the University of Maryland's Curtis C. Harris, Jr., who developed the regional and State forecasting models on which these predictions are based, further study is needed. But he feels his projections make it imperative that government start to consider three possibilities for evening things up. They are:

- Enticing industry to areas slated to have surplus population.
- Luring the jobless to the medium-sized city.
- Keeping would-be migrants at home by creating jobs in their depressed home regions.

Harris admits that his model, based on the national input-output economic model built by Maryland's Professor Clopper Almon, is not so reliable as its more general big brother. For one thing, regional data are less abundant; for another, forecasts of population and industrial growth by region are more subject to unforeseen change. But he feels people dealing with local economic problems will find them useful.

Specifics. Over-all, the study concludes that with a few exceptions—New York City, for one—the big city is no place to go looking for work. Of the 29 metropolitan areas with populations of over 1 million 19 are expected to grow economically at a rate below the national average. In all, 1.8 million people either would have to be encouraged to move to other, faster-growing cities or face unemployment. Of 190 areas with under 1 million population, 96 will have a growth rate below the national average. But a move of only 200,000 to more promising parts will keep unemployment at or below 4 percent.

Harris and his associates would like to gear their figures to shed light on specific problems, especially population and job shifts from inner city to suburbs. Chicago, for example, will have some 263,000 of its citizens move out by 1975, yet will show a net population gain of 600,000. Trends suggest that most of those leaving will be white, leaving a vastly increased Negro population that is generally less mobile and less employable. Harris wants to crank more data into his model, such as the age, income, and racial characteristics of people who move around.

As for moves the government might make in solving the problems to which his forecasts point, Harris believes an information service would be one answer. Another idea is to subsidize the moving costs of low-income workers.

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Charles Y. Lazarus of Columbus, Ohio has been characterized by TIME Magazine as "one of America's truly great Merchant Princes." He is one of 50 outstanding business leaders appointed by President Johnson to head up the JOBS Program, under the aegis of the National Alliance of Businessmen. Besides being President of The F. & R. Lazarus & Company, he is also President of the American Retail Federation, a noted philanthropist, and civic and cultural leader.

A New Breed of Business Leaders*

CHARLES Y. LAZARUS

"I am a businessman, convinced that it is necessary to rock the boat of apathy just as hard as I can in the public interest."

Some of the best minds in America are now telling us that our Nation today faces the most severe domestic crisis that we have confronted since the black hours of 1863.

The newspapers report that we have set new records for violent crime in our streets.

The scientists say that our air is too often unfit to breathe and our water unfit to drink.

The sociologists report that too many of our people are crammed into quarters that self-respecting rats would not tolerate.

Engineers say that Manhattan traffic now moves at an average rate of less than 8 miles per hour,

**From a speech delivered April 20, 1968 before a joint meeting of Beta Gamma Sigma, the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business, and the Council of Professional Education of Business.*

Charles Y. Lazarus is President, The F. & R. Lazarus & Co. of Columbus, Ohio.

and—as our Federal Chief of Transportation recently commented in jest—we can take comfort from the fact that it may be another 200 years before the whole system comes to a grinding halt.

Last summer, about 100 of our cities erupted in racial violence that left more than 100 dead, some 2,500 injured—plus property damage estimated at hundreds of millions of dollars. This summer was a repetition of the same.

My first conviction is that the urban crisis cannot be exaggerated. We are not faced with a minor and distracting ailment that can be cured with aspirin tablets and bed rest. We are dealing with a deep-seated malignancy that can be mastered only by daring and imaginative procedures that, very possibly, lie beyond the present frontiers of human knowledge.

Everyone's Job

My second conviction is that no single group can cure this ailment by itself. This is a job for everybody—for business, for government, for labor.

I am not so presumptuous as to think that I know how to solve the urban problem. I am a businessman who has become convinced that it is now in the public interest to rock the boat of apathy just as hard as we can rock it.

Earlier this year, I told my colleagues how delinquent I feel business has been in recognizing and facing up to our urban problem.

Similarly, in conversations with a variety of Washington officials, I have wondered how our government can so casually assume that a rebellion can be quashed by a few million Federal dollars doled out through Federal agencies or channeled through what they, hopefully, call, "the private sector."

Today, I want to raise some questions about your field, education for business, not to tell you how to conduct your affairs, but, hopefully, to stimulate you to undertake the kind of painful self-examination that the emergency requires.

Most of us have forgotten how we got into this mess in the first place. My experience qualifies me to testify only for business—but here the record seems clear.

Look at business as it existed 50 to 75 years ago. Then, business tended to be a personal, family enterprise, dominated by great individual entrepreneurs—pioneering titans who were widely known and highly respected. Perhaps they did not understand modern public relations techniques. Maybe one of them did say "the public be damned." But, they also had a clear comprehension of the intimate relationship between business and community. They were personally involved in local government. They built schools. They built roads and hospitals. They backed the Community Chest, the Boy Scouts, the YMCA. They spent time and money training their people how to create an environment in which both people and business could flourish. In fact, the cities we now call obsolete are the cities they built generations ago. Just look at the date on the cornerstone of your City Hall or State House and you'll know what I mean.

Over the years, our people multiplied, and their home towns grew in size. The personal family enterprises gave way to the inexorable demands of growth. Merger and acquisition gobbled them up. The concerned home-town owner—who felt that his destiny was pretty much bounded by the city limits—was replaced by the paid professional manager whose markets were national and whose personal ambition was to get transferred to the home office where his ultimate goals could be achieved. In short, we have taken the heart out of our cities, and we have replaced it with an antiseptic competence that cared about our communities on a merely temporary basis. We have merged the business sensitivity to local environment pretty much out of existence.

Less Personal Involvement

Public relations replaced personal involvement. The corporate contributions program was substituted for the hard and sweaty toil of devoted people. Top management moved out of branch office cities and into the remote, impersonal skyscraper suites far from the madding crowd. While all this was going on, government also forsook Main Street. It moved to Washington and talked to the electorate on television instead of on street corners.

Out of our business classrooms came a new kind of graduate—better educated, better trained in the traditional skills of management, but almost totally insensitive to the need for deep, personal involvement in and understanding of community affairs, and sadly lacking in comprehension of the fact that the corporation can grow and prosper only so long as it creates an environment in which people grow and prosper as well. If you doubt that statement, ask yourself how a whole generation of corporate executives could drive Cadillacs through the slums of America and not know that, one day, these ghetto-poor would rise to threaten both the corporate balance sheet and the whole fabric of American life.

Obviously, I don't charge you with sole respon-

sibility for what I regard as inexcusable national callousness. But neither do I exonerate you.

Our wracking problem reveals three things:

1. That middle management people do only what they think the boss wants done;

2. That most of our big business enterprises are ignoring the problems on the community front;

3. That the training provided in business schools has placed little emphasis on the importance of community activity. If it had, the boss would be giving different instructions to his people.

There are now 50 universities and colleges that offer a total of 101 courses that have some bearing on the subject of business-community relations.

Only 31 of these courses—less than one per school—are required.

Only 52 of the 101 courses pay major attention to the subject of community participation.

That is the statistical evidence. These young men tell us two things, loud and clear:

They Know What's Going On

First, they tell us that they don't like the way things are. They know what's going on. They want to be involved, but they're hemmed in by strangling corporate attitudes and by lack of personal preparation. Here is one voice crying in the wilderness. Let me read what he said:

"As I fly towards Washington, D.C., it seems particularly appropriate that I, as an individual, am very concerned about some of the major social and political issues confronting us as citizens. I have found, however, that almost any attempt to deal with these issues ends in frustration, because I have no individual or institutional power base from which to operate. I am limited in both personal time and funds which I may commit. Furthermore, I am unable to commit corporation funds or influence. Consequently, I find myself expending 99 percent of my efforts on my professional responsibilities where I can influence all levels of management, from the president down to local plant managers, in my special area of expertise. Thus, I see the fruits of my efforts ripen into effective action. What other influence I may have and what other time and energy I may have, seem best devoted to my family and our individual relations within our local community. I do not like this state of affairs, but I see little other alternative at this stage in my life. I take this time to indicate my feelings to you, in case it is representative of others who may also be involved deeply in their professional careers in middle management, yet who are dissatisfied with the way things are."

Business has tied society in knots for two generations. For when we suggest that the corporation should do something constructive about that environment—should invest some of its time and some of its dollars in improving that environment—we run into a good deal of criticism from business itself. A lot of businessmen earnestly argue that profit is the only legitimate corporate goal. They see no connection between environment and profit. They describe those of us who advocate community involvement as "bleeding hearts." Even the staunchest business advocates of social participation lamely describe their community activities as "enlightened self interest." They seem to be half ashamed to admit that a big corporation cannot, by itself, control its own destiny. None of us likes to tell his stockholders that profits depend on something more than how we run the business. In consequence, many of us pretend that our companies are little islands—safe from the winds of social and civil upheaval. You and I know that no corporation can earn a predictable profit in the years to come unless we meet the present rebellion with workable answers—answers that can be endorsed by the whole community.

To put it bluntly, when riots occur, business comes to a shuddering halt. Customers stay home. Buses don't run. Employees can't get to work. Our physical plant is endangered. Police costs mount. Taxes go up. The impact of riot on the balance sheet is enormous.

Some will argue that riot is the extreme, the exception. Let us hope that it remains so. Even without community chaos, however, our profit statement is geared to the business climate in a thousand ways. Take the case of the bright young man we want to recruit for our business. We bring him in to meet our people and see our store. He makes a judgment of us as employers and as colleagues. But he also judges Columbus, Ohio as a place for his family to live—and that judgment rests on the quality of our schools and hospitals, the opportunities for jobs and recreation, the spirit of our community. Question: What balance sheet value should we place on the impression that our community makes?

What the Manufacturer Looks For

Or take the case of the manufacturer who is seeking a new plant location. He weighs such physical factors as water, transportation, and convenience to his markets. But he also weighs the quality of our community life. Our store would like to see that manufacturer come to Columbus—bringing, say, a thousand new jobs along with him. Those jobs could mean a thousand new customers for us. The decision, however, will

rest, not on how good our store is, but on what that manufacturer thinks of our city as a place for his people to live and work. We don't control the decision. But we do have to live with it—another unseen item on our corporate score card.

The Crisis Is Real

And that brings me full circle in my argument.

The crisis in our cities is real. It is here. It is not going to go away unaided.

Business cannot solve the problem by itself—nor can it ignore it. The evidence is clear that business cannot prosper apart from the communities in which it operates. We, and every other element of our society, have to stop being part of the problem and start becoming a part of the solution.

To be part of the solution, we need more corporate top executives who understand the problem and who accept the size of the commitment that they, personally, must make to their communities, both to those where they live and to those where their corporation operates. The boss can't send a delegate.

We are making some progress in this regard. Executives who, a year ago, couldn't be bothered about civil rights are, today, standing up to be counted on such touchy subjects as jobs and housing.

How do we accelerate this trend?

I think business has no alternative now but to turn to you for help. We need you to help us define how business can work more effectively at the community level. We want to enlist your aid in teaching young executives what they need to know to provide community, as well as corporate leadership. And we want to challenge you to help us figure out how a corporation can best apply the traditional disciplines of the profit system. Business needs your help in new, ingenious and imaginative organizational techniques to place the responsibilities for local environment as high on the balance sheet as volume and profit. And it needs help in devising new techniques to measure the contribution of its local management.

The major elements of our society—business, government, and education—have all gotten so big and so impersonal that we have departed from the basic strengths that made America what it is today. We need to take the thrust of American life back to the individual in his local urban environment, where he lives, where he does business, where he practices his chosen profession, where he teaches, and where he participates in government.

Too many of your graduates have little, if any, sense of the true relationship between business and the community in which it lives. Decide for yourself. Is it, or is it not, a proper function to teach people not only the traditional skills of business, but the new skills of producing an environment in which local business—along with all the rest of urban America—can survive and prosper?

A lot of our brightest youngsters are turning away from business careers. Could it be that the corporation can largely ignore the major problems of American life? Are these youngsters pursuing other careers because they have been taught that a business career is an end in itself and not a means to an end and that business couldn't care less about what happens to the Nation and its people? Are they turning their backs on us because we haven't told them what a corporate executive can really contribute to his city and country? You may have to do what you made business do years ago. We had to learn how to alter our jobs to fit the brighter people you sent us. You may need to figure out how you can fit education to the problems that our cities and our country presently face. You may have to rewrite some of your textbooks and develop new teaching techniques so that tomorrow's executives will have a clear understanding of the social and community implications.

A Full Share of Responsibility

The simple fact is that assets can no longer be protected by the traditional business disciplines alone. A new kind of corporate statesmanship is required. The new corporate statesman does not believe that it is his job to manipulate his community into meek acceptance of the corporation's private and selfish goals. He accepts his full share of responsibility, not only for the products he markets, but for the schools we operate, the air we breathe, the water we drink, the government we support, the pictures in our museums, the music in our concert halls, the health of our citizens, the peace and tranquility of our neighborhoods, the health of our communities. He accepts his share of responsibility for the environment in which he operates. He brings to all these community needs the full weight of his company's knowledge, experience, and resources—knowing that tomorrow's balance sheet cannot be separated from the quality of our community life.

There is a clamoring in the streets. It makes a lot of people take a new look at themselves and what they are doing. Our country and all of the elements of the society that make up this great Nation have a big job to do. We need to train some new business statesmen. I'm hoping that this may help us do it.

BRIDGING THE GAP FROM SCHOOL TO WORK

The persistence of high unemployment among young people throughout the Nation—despite the inauguration of new education, training, and job programs for youth—has led to public concern over the adequacy of the entire range of institutions that normally serve as bridges between school and work. A substantial review of the problem and much soul-searching have begun among all those in American life who have a responsibility for preparing youth for their adult activities of earning a living and raising families, or for helping them enter fields of work where they can acquire the wherewithal for productive and satisfying lives.

The problem of "bridging the gap" between school and work has been the subject of a special joint review by the Departments of Labor and of Health, Education, and Welfare pursuant to a Presidential directive in the 1967 MANPOWER REPORT. It played a substantial part in the report of the Advisory Council on Vocational Education—VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, THE BRIDGE BETWEEN MAN AND HIS WORK—issued early this year. The problem has also been under consideration by the Education Advisory Committee to the Appalachian Commission, and has been the subject of many technical discussions both in this country and among experts from nations of the free world meeting together at the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development.

This chapter summarizes current knowledge concerning the many features of the school-to-work problem, the judgments and conclusions that have evolved, and the steps suggested to deal with the situation. It also discusses the need for further analysis which is being undertaken even while program action is being considered or going forward and which will bring to bear the growing knowledge arising out of both research and operating experience.

The Problem

The essence of the problem is reflected in the paradox that emerges from the following two propositions:

—The United States keeps larger proportions of its children in school longer than does any other nation, to insure their preparation for lifetime activity.

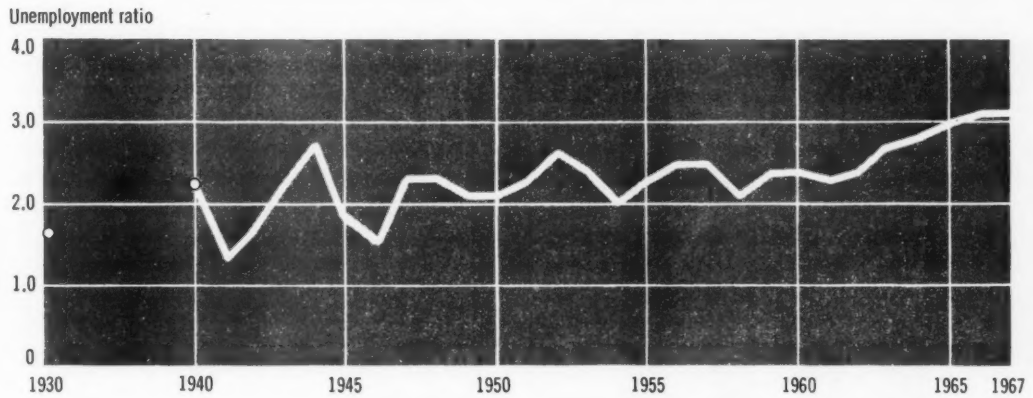
—Yet the unemployment rate among youth is far higher here than in any other industrial nation and had been rising sharply until the introduction of the Government's youth programs over the last 4 years.

Unemployment rates among youth, while highest for those in low-income minority group families, are substantially higher in all income groups than those considered desirable by any concept of acceptable un-

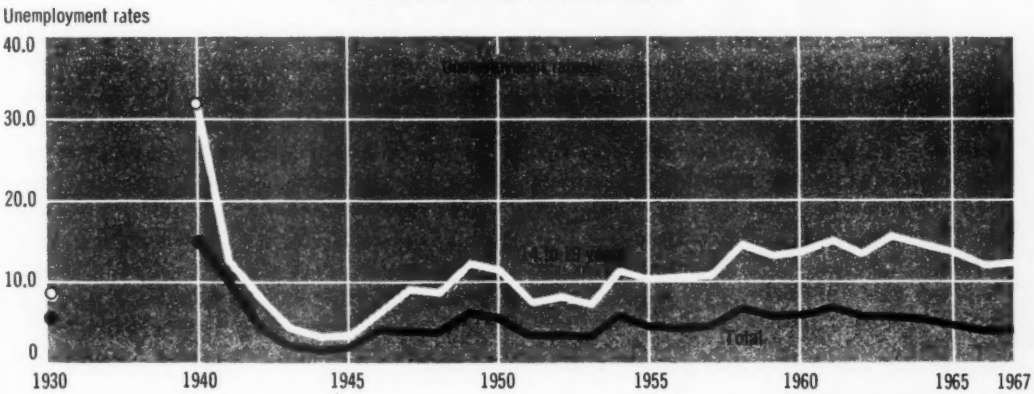
Reprinted from the 1968 issue of the Manpower Report of the President.

Chart 1

Ratio of teenage to overall unemployment has increased...



as declines in teenage unemployment rate have not kept pace with declines in overall rate.



1/ Pertains to population 14 years old and over.

Note: Fourteen and 15 year olds are included to maintain comparability with years prior to 1947. Rates for 1930 and 1940 are decennial census data. The 1941 estimates are October data. All other figures are annual averages. Data from 1930 to 1940 not available.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from the U.S. Department of Commerce.

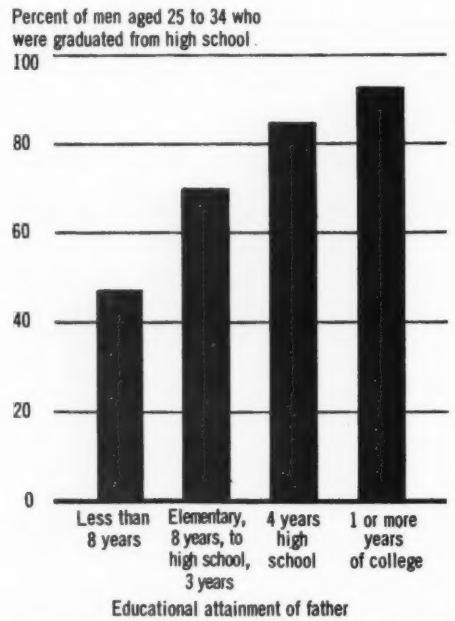
employment rates that has been developed in our Nation. Thus, youth in the 14- to 19-year-old bracket from families with incomes of less than $3,000 have unemployment rates of 17.4 percent, an extraordinarily high level. But even youth from families with incomes of $10,000 and over have unemployment rates of 7.7 percent—rates that are about double the national average and quadruple the rates of adults.[1]

The differentials between youth and adult unemployment rates have persisted despite marked improvements in the overall employment situation. Examination of the character and dimensions of youth programs undertaken in the last 4 years, of the rise in

[1] *These data, the latest available on unemployment rates of teenagers by family income, are available only for teenagers 14 to 19 and relate to teenagers who were family members, other than head of the family, and were unemployed in March 1967. Family income is for 1966.*

Chart 2

Proportion of men who complete high school is directly related to their fathers' educational attainment.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on March 1962 data from the U.S. Department of Commerce.

youth unemployment rates before that, and of the demographic and economic factors at work suggests that the introduction of these special programs has been a key factor in keeping youth unemployment rates from rising even further in relation to adult rates.

The pattern of high unemployment rates among youth has become more pronounced in recent years. Though some differential between adult and youth rates has existed for decades, the gap has widened with the passage of time. The unemployment rates for youth shown by the 1930 census were far lower than the youth rates today (or at any time during the postwar period). They were only slightly above adult rates—8.3 percent for the 14- to 19-year-old group compared with 5.2 percent overall. Both 1930 rates reflect predepression circumstances. (See chart 1.)

While unemployment rates give some indication of why the school-to-work problem commands public attention, they are by no means the sole indicator of its dimensions.. Unemployment rates do not reflect discouraged abstention from the job market, underemployment, or frustrating occupational misfits that may lead to quits and unemployment—problems on which there is, as yet no adequate information. It is known that the labor force participation of young people (about 50 percent for the 16- to 19-year-old group, compared with 62 percent for those aged 20 and over) has remained relatively unchanged in recent years, despite the increasing proportion of youth in school and the increasing number of young people who have been reaching working age. This finding undoubtedly reflects the general improvement in employment opportunities. It is possible that labor force participation of youth would actually increase if their desire for employment were matched by the availability of job openings.

Underemployment is another factor in the youth employment situation which is difficult to measure. One evidence of this is the extent to which young people are able to secure only part-time employment as a result of economic factors. In 1967, 9.4 percent of the teenage full-time labor force, 343,000 young people, were working part time for economic reasons, compared with a rate of only 2.9 percent for persons aged 20 and over.[2]

The youth for whom bridges to work are now most adequate are those with the intensive preparation provided by professional training at the college level or beyond. For them, careers are virtually assured and unemployment is at or very close to minimum levels. In fact, in many specialties there are numerous opportunities open for people with professionl training. But sizable proportions of all other groups of youth—high school dropouts, high school graduates, and college dropouts—face serious uncertainties as they leave the academic world and begin the work for which school was to have prepared them.

The tremendous advantage college graduates have in entering the world of work can be seen from the unemployment rates for young adults. In March 1967, for example, 20- to 24-year-olds with a college degree had an unemployment rate of only 1.4 percent, compared with 5.3 percent for those with a high school diploma, and a completely unacceptable 10.5 percent for those who had completed only 8 years of school.

Vocational preparation at the secondary and post-

[2] *The teenage full-time labor force is made up of youth, aged 16 to 19, who are working full time or looking for full-time work.*

secondary levels has been progressively strengthened, however, under the impetus of the Vocational Education Act of 1963. This act has made possible extensive improvements in both the quantity and quality of vocational education offerings, which should mean better job preparation for many youth.

The problem of building bridges between school and work involves many fundamental elements in American life in addition to educational preparation. No one institution has or can have sole responsibility for helping youth to prepare for and make the transition from school to work without unreasonable and discouraging spells of unemployment. Some young people get help from teachers; some get help from school counselors, especially "if they are college material" and will therefore cross into the work world with greater ease at a later point. Many are placed by the Employment Service system. Others get help from social workers, police, neighborhood centers, youth programs, or individual employers to whom they apply. Personal contact (through acquaintances, friends, and relatives), which has always been a strong feature of the job market in this country is one of the most frequent ways of finding jobs.

Parents play an important part in the process of transition (though perhaps less so today than in past years when children were more likely to follow in their parents' occupational footsteps). They are important not only in terms of their influence on the child's preparation for life, but also in terms of the contacts and associations they can open up in the bridge-crossing process. Their contributions in this latter respect are necessarily limited when they themselves have been denied opportunity, through either outright discrimination or adverse educational or economic circumstance. Children from families in the middle and upper income brackets, already the best equipped to compete for jobs, are more likely to learn of good job opportunities from their relatives and friends than are disadvantaged youth.

Recent studies suggest that we do not fully understand what the function of the parent is in preparing children for work, whether through education, training, or other means. Nor do we know what this parental activity contributes to the Nation's economy. The importance of parental influence in determining the ultimate place of the child in society is suggested by various census data relating the education of parents to the education of their children. (See chart 2.) Where the father had graduated from high school, about 87 percent of sons aged 25 to 34 were also graduates. On the other hand, where the father did not graduate from high school, less than 60 percent of sons in this age group received high school diplomas.

TABLE 1. PROPORTION OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES AND DROPOUTS WHO HAD RECEIVED JOB GUIDANCE OR COUNSELING [1]

Receipt of job guidance or counseling	Percent distribution	
	Dropouts	Graduates
Total	100.0	100.0
Received guidance	22.4	56.1
School counseling only	17.1	37.8
Employment service only	4.2	4.9
School and employment service	1.0	13.4
Never received guidance	77.6	43.9

[1] Data relate to persons 16 to 21 years of age in February 1963 who were no longer in school, were not college graduates, and were in the civilian noninstitutional population.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare's 1966 report on EQUALITY OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY also suggests, as one of its major conclusions, that the home environment of the deprived child can be an overwhelming impediment to his economic and social development.

The need to supplement the activities of the parents through various parent-surrogate activities such as Head Start cannot be overestimated. Services that middle and upper income families provide their children as a matter of course are all too often missing in the low-income home. The availability of adequate substitutes may help break the inter-generational chains of poverty for many children from disadvantaged environments.

Ways of Improving the Transition Process

Perception of the school-work gap and of ways of bridging it is naturally colored by the vantage point from which it is regarded. Those involved with school administration have been concerned that the preparation given young people in school be improved so that it can ease their transition into work and reduce youth unemployment rates. Those in the manpower agencies concerned with the cadres of young people who continue to enter the labor force, from school systems that

will require many years of improvement, think youth should be helped, where necessary, by new and special training facilities designed to equip them for available jobs. Those who work directly with youth in the process of transition—counseling and placing them as they graduate or drop out of school and advising them on job and training opportunities and on the special work and work-training programs open to them—are particularly concerned about improving the mechanics of the transition. Those involved with youth who are making the transition from rural to urban areas are concerned also with the problems of residence and cultural change and with the wide range of information on occupations needed by those who are leaving rural areas.

Indeed, a strong case can be made for a variety of approaches: (1) Improvements in the educational system and great expansion of cooperative education programs to prepare young people better; (2) special programs to take care of the approximately 6 million school dropouts expected to seek work opportunities without adequate preparation over the next decade; (3) improvements in the process of communicating occupational information to young people while they are in school and putting them in touch with jobs and additional training opportunities as they come out; and (4) improvements in early employment experience, by adding to this experience new opportunities to learn.

At the present time many high school graduates and dropouts do not receive any guidance or counseling. Eight out of 10 school dropouts have never had counseling by school or employment office officials about training or employment opportunities, and 4 out of 10 high school graduates have never had such counseling. (See table 1.) There are no school counselors at all in 13 percent of the Nation's secondary schools and in 90 percent of its elementary schools. And only Massachusetts and the Virgin Islands meet the Office of Education's basic standard of one counselor for every 300 students.

Even smaller proportions have been exposed to supervised work experience while in school. Among out-of-school youth in 1963, only 7 percent of high school graduates and 3 percent of dropouts had such work experience.[3]

The Employment Service's part-time, cooperative school program—under which regular Employment Service counselors come into the schools to test, counsel, and take applications from those not planning to go on to college—reaches about 50 percent of the high schools and about 75 percent of all high school seniors. Unfortunately, however, it reaches a much smaller proportion of the students who drop out of school, and in many cases the degree of contact with the outgoing student is far too superficial.

In addition, occupational information reaches only a small proportion of students below the senior high school level. And visual occupational materials (films, calendars with pictures depicting occupations, etc.) still need a great deal of improvement. The OCCUPATIONAL OUTLOOK HANDBOOK—the Government's basic guide to occupational opportunities—should be made readily available to youth in junior high school. It is of particular importance that those youth most in need of guidance concerning job and training opportunities—the high school and junior high school dropouts—be made aware of the realities of the world of work. Proper guidance for these youth at an earlier age would promote the dual objectives of encouraging them to remain in school while helping those who are determined to drop out in spite of the odds against them.

Some notable attempts have been made to give more personalized and intensive counseling to individuals, as in schools that provide a full range of guidance services beginning at seventh grade, in the skill centers financed under the MDTA, and in the efforts of the Employment Service to deal with potential dropouts at several continuation schools. These experiences suggest that, with improved guidance materials available throughout the junior and senior high schools and intensive work by counselors knowledgeable about the practical employment situation existing for students coming out of school, some inroads can be made into present youth unemployment rates. These experiences also point to the overwhelming importance of full cooperation and joint action by the local education agencies and the local Employment Service.

Innovative experiences have also taken place under the Vocational Education Act and in special MDTA training courses that expose students to the realities of work life rather than merely to academic situations. The development of more cooperative education programs, even under academically oriented curriculums, has meant that increasing numbers are exposed to

[3] *These statistics relate to cooperative educational arrangements between schools and industry. In addition, since 1963, the Neighborhood Youth Corps has provided hundreds of thousands of part-time employment opportunities to poor children to enable them to remain in school.*

work situations that make abstractions come alive.

These experiences suggest that substantial improvements in educational curriculums and more linkages to the reality of the work world will help substantially to improve the preparation of youth. While advocates of general or college-bound preparation still argue with those who want to see more work content introduced throughout the school curriculum, there is growing agreement on several points: (1) That curriculums can generally be enriched by material drawn from real work situations; (2) that all students should be given much more information concerning career paths and opportunities, and much earlier than is now usual; and (3) that the vocational school program should offer opportunities for students with a far wider range of interests and abilities to try out vocationally oriented curriculums and go on not only to jobs but also, increasingly, to higher education—either directly or after periods of employment. In any case, the secondary education system in this country must strive to reach the point at which all youth who receive a high school diploma but do not go on to further education are adequately equipped to find and keep a meaningful job.

There have also been suggestions on other points that need further exploration. It has been proposed, for example, that the schools themselves assume increased responsibility for the actual job placement of their graduates. The exercise of such responsibility would expose the schools to industry and should result in improved and more realistic curriculums and guidance services. It is argued that it makes no more sense for the schools to be unconcerned about what happens to their graduates than it does for an automobile manufacturer to pay no attention to the sales of his products.

How this concern is reflected in new programs becomes an important matter. The Government's manpower services are already coping with some of the problems of transition by finding jobs for young people through the facilities of the Employment Service (in particular, through the Youth Opportunity Centers and the Cooperative School Program), as well as by projecting the future needs of the economy and its occupations as a base for educational, training, and curriculum planning. A potentially serious problem in having the schools handle placements is that the knowledge of job opportunities required for a satisfactory placement extends far beyond a school district or even a labor area, and calls for the information network available to the Employment Service system. Furthermore, the Government is inevitably concerned about problems of duplication and coordination that might result from newly awakened realizations of need, at a time when there are already recognized shortages of qualified personnel in both the schools and the manpower services.

Solutions to this range of problems by cooperative effort between school systems and Employment Service offices have been worked out in a number of cases and can be carried further, as they have been in other countries such as Sweden and Great Britain. In Sweden, the school system and the employment service each finances half of the cost associated with youth placement activities. In Great Britain, a cooperative relationship has been developed over many years, with responsibility allocated for both guidance and actual job placement. As part of this program, a special Youth Employment Service has been created to deal with youth both in school and as they come out seeking jobs.

Older Americans

(*Continued from page 30*)

job training for an additional 300 rural workers aged 55 and older.

Recent reports from Green Thumb, Inc. indicate that more than 2,000 Green Thumbers will be working in the 14 Green Thumb States this year. The average age of these workers is 68 years, and all have passed physical examinations. The average income per farm couple prior to entry into the Green Thumb projects was $900 a year. The Green Thumbers are busy planting trees, building new parks, rebuilding older parks, creating rest areas, reconstructing historical sites, and beautifying highways. But most significantly, they are being provided sound training, preparing them for new jobs as gardeners, landscapers, nurserymen, and highway maintenance men. Such work could enable these older workers to earn up to $1,500 a year.

The 10 new States participating in the program are Indiana, Kentucky, Nebraska, New York, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Utah, Virginia, and Wisconsin.

To describe the effect of Project Green Thumb, an Arkansas Green Thumber answered the question "What is Green Thumb?" this way: "That's easy. I think that it is the best program for the rural senior citizen. Green Thumb is just like a man getting married and having children to carry on his name. In the same way, we Green Thumbers create something for the coming generations to enjoy and remember us by. This program has changed our outlook on life. Once more we feel like somebody cares."

George L.- P. Weaver, Assistant Secretary of Labor for International Affairs, attends the 52nd session of the International Labour Organisation, June 1968, in Geneva, Switzerland. Secretary Weaver was elected Chairman of the ILO Governing Body for the 1968–69 term by the delegates representing 108 countries.

Photo courtesy International Labour Office

Equal Job Opportunity Within the Federal Government

Some experiences of the Department of Labor in establishing positive measures to assure full compliance with Civil Rights and Executive Orders

EDWARD J. MCVEIGH

In recent weeks questions have been raised about the U.S. Government in its role as an employer and that same Government's program for full equality of job opportunity without regard to race or color. In a national magazine, one civil rights leader has charged that, as an employer, Uncle Sam has been guilty of the same discriminatory practices that it seeks to eradicate or prevent in private industry. The U.S. Civil Service Commission has responded to this general charge. This article seeks to report on the experience of one agency—the U.S. Department of Labor—under the current "equal employment opportunity" effort of the Federal Government.

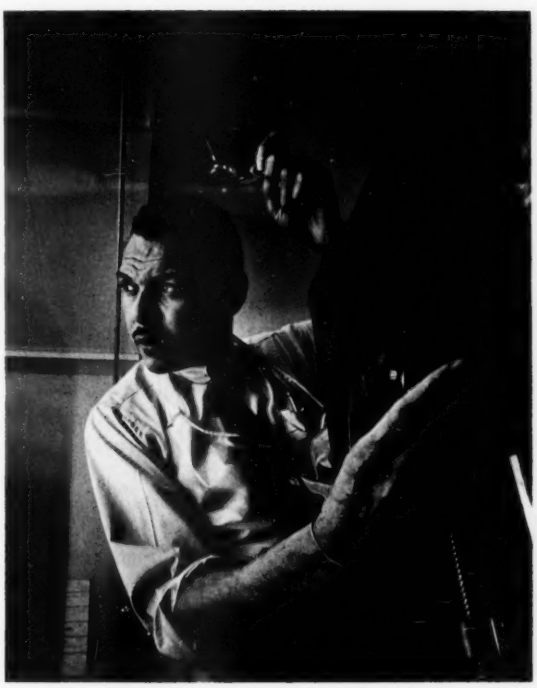
Executive Order 10925 of March 6, 1961, was a recognition that a "nondiscrimination" policy was not enough. That Order recognized that it was the "plain and positive obligation" of the Government to promote and ensure equal opportunity and that the policy of the executive branch of the Government was to "encourage by positive measures" equal employment opportunity for all qualified persons, without regard to race, creed, or national origin. Followed and strengthened by Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and Executive Order 11246 of 1965, Executive Order 10925 pointed the way to an affirmative and active Equal Employment program in the Federal Government.

When Executive Order 10925 was issued, the Department of Labor, which in 1961 firmly believed it had been practicing nondiscrimination in its employment policies, took stock of its position. What, if anything, did we need to do in order to comply fully with the letter of the law and to exemplify the spirit? To what extent did the concept of affirmative action affect our employment policies and practices?

The Department's early analysis produced some surprising results. Although we had a fairly large number of minority employees (Negroes constituted 18.01 percent of the work force), they were massed at the lower grade and skill levels. Of the total 1,222 Negro employees, 68.7 percent were in Wage Board or GS–4 or below positions. Only 2 percent were in grades GS–12 through GS–18. There were many organizational and geographical areas with few if any minority employees and there was gross underrepresentation of minority groups in professional, technical, or administrative positions. Why did the Department's staffing pattern look this way? Were we in fact discriminating? Possibly, in some cases, we were discriminating, but primarily we found there were few qualified minority applicants for higher level positions. When we asked why, we discovered some of the following: no efforts to contact minority colleges; no efforts to reach the minority community; no positive efforts to make clear to minority candidates that the Department meant business about equal employment opportunity for all. We also found that Government employment procedures and Civil Service examinations were often an impediment to the potential minority candidate. With respect to those minority employees already on the rolls—in the low grade positions—no studies had been made of backgrounds or potential of present employees to move to higher level positions; no special efforts had been made to encourage minority participation in training and development programs. In short, "nondiscrimination" was not getting the job done and we had to shift gears to an affirmative *action* program if we were to move forward.

When an affirmative action program is started, it inevitably raises the question of discrimination in reverse. At what point does affirmative action stop and

Harrison Allen, a photographer employed in the Photographic Laboratory of the Department of Labor, adjusts a precision copy camera before taking a picture of an official document.



Edward J. McVeigh is the Associate Assistant Secretary for Administration of the Department of Labor.

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR NEGRO EMPLOYMENT

	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968*
Number of Negroes employed	1,222	1,524	1,780	1,740	1,772	1,938	2,182	2,276
Percent of work force	18.01	18.20	19.25	19.57	19.76	20.89	23.32	24.11

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR NEGRO EMPLOYMENT BY GRADE DISTRIBUTION

	GS–4 and below		GS–5 thru GS–11		GS–12 thru GS–18	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1961	839	68.7	359	29.4	24	2.0
1962	968	63.5	509	33.4	47	3.1
1963	989	55.6	720	40.4	71	4.0
1964	840	48.2	812	46.7	88	5.1
1965	788	44.5	858	48.4	126	7.1
1966	829	42.8	950	49.0	159	8.2
1967	842	38.6	1,118	51.2	222	10.2
1968*	866	38.5	1,173	51.1	237	10.4

*Through June 30, 1968.

reverse discrimination begin? Quota systems for hiring, identifying specific positions to be filled *only* by minorities certainly would lend themselves to this label and could not be tolerated by the Department. Affirmative action programs spring from the Department's policies as articulated by the Secretary of Labor below:

It is the obligation of the Department of Labor:

(1) to provide greater employment opportunities for qualified candidates from minority groups for professional and nonprofessional positions at all grade levels and in all occupations;

(2) to provide every employee with the opportunity to realize those aspirations which are consistent with his talents, his capacities, his willingness to accept responsibility, and his willingness to prepare himself;

(3) to provide the climate, the work environment, and the opportunity for every employee to make maximum utilization of his talents and capacities in pursuit of a genuinely rewarding career.

To accomplish any measure of success in achieving these goals demands participation and commitment by all. It requires that managers, supervisors, and employees give full support to and participation in programs designed to provide assistance and information to a population which has never been provided such assistance before.

After the analysis, and after the problem areas were defined and the Department's policy established, action began. The programs included recruitment, training, evaluation and record-keeping, public information, and periodic progress reviews. The Office of the Assistant Secretary for Administration was assigned the responsibility for an affirmative equal employment program encompassing the above areas. Some of the highlights of the Department's efforts, problems, and successes are as follows:

Recruitment

Since we believed that many potential minority candidates were not aware of career opportunities, did not believe the Government really meant it when we said equal employment opportunity, and were discouraged by application procedures, particularly examinations, we had to take our programs to them. Consequently, we established intensive on-campus visitation and recruitment campaigns at over 60 colleges and universities with large minority populations, most of which we still visit on a regular basis. This college effort was made to provide an intake of bright, young minority talent who could be further trained and developed and who, over a period of time, would provide a normal infusion of minority talent into upper level positions.

Recruiters were carefully screened selected, and trained for this specialized phase of recruitment. Many were from program areas, had the ability to discuss the technical programs of the Department of Labor but, above all, each possessed an ability to relate to human beings.

While recruitment on the college campus was emphasized, it was by no means limited to the campus. The Department was also interested in finding top quality persons who could compete successfully for middle and upper level positions. A system was developed by which vacancies at all grade levels could be reviewed in terms of specific recruitment plans aimed at other than campus eligibles. Recruiters spent considerable time in selected cities, meeting the minority com-

Edward C. Sylvester (left), director of the Labor Department's Office of Federal Contract Compliance prior to becoming Assistant Secretary of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, discusses a problem with David Franklin, a young compliance officer. The office coordinates the Federal program requiring affirmative action to achieve equal employment opportunity by Government contractors.

Alyce Oliver, a senior in the college preparatory course at McKinley High School, has a summer assignment in the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Operating a calculator, she is working with economists in projecting work production for the year 1980.

munity and its leaders, discussing Federal opportunities, Departmental programs, and *jobs*.

The early efforts were frustating and often fruitless in terms of immediate hiring results. Many of the schools were not prepared for a massive recruitment campaign by Federal and private companies. There was a dearth of Federal Service Entrance Examination (FSEE) eligibles from which to select. Schools and students were not really aware yet of Federal interest, job duties, or qualification requirements and were usually poorly acquainted with the Federal examination process. The traditional curricula of many of the schools provided few students with qualifications we needed. Thus, recruiters spent considerable time with school administrations, pointing up the need to provide more of the speciality courses, and giving technical guidance in establishing professional placement offices where there were none or in expanding, updating, and professionalizing the offices which were already in existence.

As part of its college program the Department placed 35 to 50 minority students each year in academically related junior professional summer positions, attempting for the most part to reach students in their junior year. In many cases these students returned to school and assisted the Department in active on-campus recruitment during their senior year.

As the Department made appointments, it gained the confidence and acceptance of the colleges, faculty, and student bodies. We could then turn attention to such specific problems as the relative inability of minority students to pass competitive examinations. The Department hosted a conference of Placement Officer/Educators to discuss the problem of low rate of passing on Federal competitive examinations. Some were from schools whose students had had some success in passing the FSEE. Ideas were pooled and exchanged. A major product of this Conference was a small handbook, "Preparing to Compete for Federal Careers—A CRASH PROGRAM." This guide was forwarded by the Secretary of Labor to the presidents of all predominantly minority schools and described programs which any school or group could institute at little or no cost and which could assist students in preparing for competitive examinations such as the Federal Service Entrance Examination. Many schools have instituted programs of the type described and the results are more discernible on examination registers each year.

Employee-Oriented Programs

All of the Department's activity did not take place in the "outside world." Equal opportunity did not stop at the hiring office, but rather continued "in-house" with promotional opportunities, training opportunities, and career counseling and guidance.

Surveys of employee skills and attitudes were an early step in the identification of the problem. It was found that large numbers of clerical employees had skills which were not being utilized; some had college degrees even in fields for which we were having trouble recruiting; some needed only to pass an appropriate examination to move into professional positions; and some lacked only a few credits for obtaining a college degree. Counseling and career guidance programs were established with counselors being given special training in employee and career guidance.

Testing programs were made available to employees, advanced training was scheduled for some employees while others were placed immediately in professional level positions. Organizational segments of the Department were authorized to develop alternative testing devices to such examinations as the Federal Service Entrance Examination in an effort to enable more employees to qualify for higher level professional positions. It has been a slow and sometimes painful proc-

Labor Department Work Force

Negro employees as a percentage of total D.C. work force:
1961..... 30.40 percent.
1968..... 35.11 percent.

Negro employees as a percentage of total field work force:
1961..... 4.06 percent.
1968..... 11.00 percent.

Negro field employees as a percentage of total Negro work force:
1961..... 10.63 percent.
1968..... 20.82 percent.

Negro field employees as a percentage of total Negro field work force—breakdown by grade:

Field Offices	1961		1968	
	number	percent	number	percent
GS–4 and below....	92	70.77	161	33.97
GS–5 through GS–11.....	35	26.93	231	48.52
GS–12 and above...	3	2.30	82	17.51
Total.....	130		474	

Negro employees in D.C. as a percentage of total Negro D.C. work force—breakdown by grade:

D.C.	1961		1968	
	number	percent	number	percent
GS–4 and below....	747	68.41	705	39.12
GS–5 through GS–11.....	324	29.66	942	52.28
GS–12 and above...	21	1.92	155	8.60
Total.....	1,092		1,802	

ess, but a great deal has been accomplished and learned about the nature of our workforce and its capabilities and potential.

As the enlarged concept of Equal Employment Opportunity became a reality in the Department, results of affirmative efforts began to show in our Department. By 1964 there were 500 more Negro employees in the Department than in 1961. Slightly less than half of all Negroes were in the lower grades (compared to nearly 70 percent in 1961); nearly 50 percent were in the middle grades GS–5/11 (compared to 29 percent in 1961) and 5.1 percent were in grades GS–12/18 (compared to 2 percent in 1961).

Policy Affirmation

The Department has found it necessary from time to time to reaffirm its equal opportunity policies in order to sustain action with respect to the programs. It was determined in 1964 that something other than written policy statements issued by the administrative staff must be used to create greater awareness of, and favorable attitudes toward, affirmative action.

The Secretary spoke directly to field employees by the use of a conference telephone system, reiterating the Department's interest, concern, and commitment and discussing each employee's responsibilities to further the equal employment programs. Training courses for managers and supervisors which were devised are being run periodically in both Washington and field and deal with such topics as prejudice and the work environment.

In addition to specific individuals having day–to–day equal employment opportunity program responsibility, a top level committee was established to handle specific problems and to make recommendations to the Secretary. This committee is composed of several Assistant Secretaries and the heads of the two largest Bureaus of the Department.

Further Efforts

As contacts in the minority communities expanded, a unique reference guide was developed which included hundreds of names of individuals and organizations which might be helpful in our recruitment efforts. This guide was distributed to recruiters, personnel staffs, and operating officials.

By 1965, it became clear that more widespread effort was needed to sustain college recruitment and community action, particularly in the field. With increasing "know-how" and the establishment of regional administrative offices, we were able to get operating personnel offices to take on more active responsibility. This provided more frequent community and college contacts and better feedback of candidate supply. Bureaus assigned recruiting duties to field employees with specific interest in equal opportunity. In addition to these Bureau part-time minority recruitment specialists, Equal Employment Opportunity Coordinators were appointed in four major regional cities. These coordinators spend full time seeking candidates for both field and Washington positions and developing Labor Department contacts with minority communities.

In 1965, during our periodic review of programs and progress, it became apparent that we needed to devote greater effort to the Mexican-American community. The same intensive college/community effort applied to the Negro community was applied in the Mexican-American community in order to improve job possibilities and opportunities for all areas, particularly with respect to positions in the Department of Labor.

By 1968, the staffing pattern of the Department had again changed. Total Negro employment had risen to 24.11 percent, an increase of over 600 employees since 1964. Negro representation had dropped in the lower grades (GS–1/4) to 38 percent while the highest grades (GS–12/18) increased from 24 positions in 1961 to 237 positions in 1968, 10.4 percent of all positions at those levels being filled by Negroes. Negro employment itself increased by 86.25 percent, while overall employment increased only 39.13 percent from 1961 through 1968. By the beginning of 1968, the Mexican-American staff had increased in the southwestern area by 26 positions with an increase of 10 in both the GS–5/11 and the GS–12/18 professional levels.

At this point in time—while continuing an affirmative action program at all levels—the Department believes it is time to add emphasis to resources of the communities in which we locate—namely the urban disadvantaged groups. Therefore, our efforts are moving to programs of job redesign, and more use of the technician positions in order to provide entrance and training opportunities for the disadvantaged. One example of this effort is "Project Prove," a model Neighborhood Youth Corps project which will provide a 2-year intensive on-the-job classroom, individual and group counseling experience geared to the needs of the enrollees and the Department. Those who successfully complete this program will be provided with meaningful career positions with some upward mobility.

Thus, new ways of providing equality of opportunity are continuously being sought while methods previously successful are continued in all areas of the Department of Labor.

MANPOWER REPORT of the PRESIDENT
including
A REPORT ON MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS, RESOURCES, UTILIZATION, AND TRAINING
BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
TRANSMITTED TO THE CONGRESS APRIL 1968

The Manpower Report

It is traditional for the President of the United States to submit to Congress an annual report on the progress of our manpower program conducted by the Department of Labor.

Although this custom is long established, there is nothing routine about this report or its subjects: jobs for our citizens; more useful and more satisfying employment to give Americans a sense of fuller participation in our society.

Early in 1968 the President told the Congress that jobs were "the first essential," and proposed that the Congress launch a new $2.1 billion manpower program . . . the most sweeping in the Nation's history.

At the same time he called upon the leaders of the American business community to form a National Alliance of Businessmen to provide jobs for hundreds of thousand of the hardcore unemployed.

By the time of publication of THE MANPOWER REPORT, more than 500 business executives, whose talents command more than $15 million in salaries alone, had volunteered to work full time on the JOBS Program in 50 of our largest cities. These were assisted by some 7,000 volunteers.

The same kind of concerned response had been received from labor unions, the Urban Coalition, chambers of commerce, churches, schools, and civic groups. The words "full employment" have a new meaning to people in all strata of America's social and economic structures.

The JOBS Program, operated jointly by the Depart- of Labor and the representatives of America's great business and industrial firms, and with the cooperation of organized labor, is but one of the scores of manpower topics covered in detail in the annual report of the President.

Copies of the full text in paperback may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. The price is $2.25 per copy.

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CONTINUING EDUCATION PROGRAMS
AND SERVICES FOR WOMEN
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
WAGE AND LABOR STANDARDS ADMINISTRATION

New Book on Opportunities for Women

Employment Service personnel who consult with adult women about training and employment opportunities will be interested in "Continuing Education Programs and Services for Women," a Women's Bureau publication. The 104-page illustrated book provides a list by State of special programs and services for adult women offered by more than 200 colleges and universities and 35 other organizations. The list includes summary statements describing the type of program offering as well as the person to contact for more information.

Single copies of the book may be obtained without charge by writing to the Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20210. Copies also are available at 40 cents each from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.

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